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The Nation.

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The Week.

The announcement is made from both Copenhagen and Washington that President McKinley has bought the Danish West India islands for the sum of $3,216,000, subject to the appropriation of the money by Congress. As this step has been taken by negotiation with a foreign government, it is a treaty and remains to be ratified by the Senate. It is reported that Mr. Lodge, at whose initiative the purchase has been made, has counted noses and is able to assure the President that the necessary two-thirds vote can be obtained. This was Mr. Seward's belief when he negotiated the purchase of the islands of St. Thomas and St. John in 1867, but it turned out otherwise. It may turn out otherwise now. Circumstances are not favorable just now for the acquisition of colonies. The Porto Rico experiment is not a success. The inhabitants are in a state of desperate poverty, if not of starvation. Their political status is undetermined. A decision of the Supreme Court involving the questions of free trade and of citizenship is pending. Even the most rampant Expansionist may well pause while such momentous issues are undetermined, for of course we do not want to take more colonies until we know what we are going to do with those we now have.

Moreover, we ought to have passed the stage of expansion mania which the Spanish war brought on. It has cost us a vast sum of money and a pitiful load of blood-guiltiness, and we cannot yet see the end of either the one or the other. May we not ask what use we can make of these Danish islands if we have them? If lodgment in the West Indies for naval purposes is sought for, we have that already in Porto Rico. The port of St. Thomas may be more favorable in some respects, but it is more unfavorable in others, being notoriously subject to earthquakes. It was nearly ruined by one shortly after Mr. Seward's treaty for its purchase was rejected. The island of St. John is worthless. That of Santa Cruz contains only 51,000 acres of land. More than nine-tenths of its inhabitants are negroes and mulattoes, and its population of all kinds has been diminishing for years. Regarded as an investment of money, it will be a dead loss, and worse. The United States could not afford to take the islands as a commercial venture if offered to us for nothing. Nobody can form a perception of the penury of those little bits of islands without visiting them. The average wages of laboring men are only twenty cents a day throughout the group, and employment is not steady even at that rate. It is to be hoped that Congress will refuse to annex any more poorhouses to our domain without counting their future annual cost.

The Administration's plan to bend Cuba to its wishes is gradually becoming apparent. It is a compound of delay and commercial pressure. Nothing is to be decided that can possibly be adjourned from day to day. Cubans ask in vain what the policy of our Government is. No clear and positive outline of it has been given or will be given. Things are to be allowed to drift. The longer the Constitutional Convention sits, the sharper the factions which develop in it, the better will Washington be pleased. It all serves to waste time and exhaust the patience of the Cubans. This is our *mañana* policy, coolly borrowed from Spain. Settle nothing, postpone everything, and trust that time will give you all that you desire. With this smiling delay goes the method of insinuating that annexation will be greatly to Cuba's money profit. Much is made of the one great market for Cuban products—the United States—which Secretary Root intimated might be lost to Cuba if independent. Some sugar-planters of Matanzas have already taken the alarm, and have asked Gen. Wood to see that the American duties on sugar were made less burdensome. He told them he thought their demands just, and that he would forward them to Washington. From there they will be told that if the Convention does what is "right," all will be arranged. Our information is, however, that the majority of the Convention will withstand both covert threats and indirect bribes, and adopt a plan of thoroughly independent government for Cuba.

Wayne MacVeagh is another of those prominent Republicans who voted for McKinley in order to defeat Bryanism, but who reserved the right to fight the policy of Imperialism more vigorously than ever after the reëlection of the President. Mr. MacVeagh accents the conclusions reached by Froude, that if there be one lesson which history clearly teaches, it is that free nations cannot govern subject provinces; and that if such a nation is unable or unwilling to let its dependencies share its own Constitution, the Constitution itself will fall in pieces from mere incompetence for its duties. The ex-Attorney-General is willing to admit that the President has done what he believed to be his duty in trying to suppress resistance to the authority of the United States in the Philippines, but he adds:

"That attempt at suppression has been going on for nearly two years, and has inflicted a vast amount of slaughter, disease, and misery on our own sons, as well as on those who resist our authority, and I cannot understand why anybody, whether an Imperialist or an Anti-Imperialist, should not rejoice at seeing a stop put to further slaughter, a general amnesty proclaimed, and the Philippine Islands, for the present at least, granted the same form of Territorial government as we have just established in the Sandwich Islands, and as our Territories have always enjoyed."

The most striking thing about such a deliverance as this from ex-Attorney-General MacVeagh, as about previous ones in much the same line from Congressman McCall and ex-President Harrison, is that they provoke scarcely any criticism from the Republican press. The most loyal supporters of the Administration are coming to recognize that it cannot resist the force of such arguments from such authorities.

The "declaratory statement" which Minister Conger reports that he filed along with his signature to the Chinese Joint Note, has not been cabled in detail, but it appears to be a nobly Pickwickian document. It practically says, if the accounts of it may be believed, that the President authorized Mr. Conger to sign only against his will and with many misgivings, and, besides, notifies China and the other Powers that Mr. McKinley has not the Constitutional power to do what the Note says he will, even if he wanted to, which he doesn't. This, we believe, is called diplomacy. By any other name it would appear as foolish. The Chinese Emperor may conclude to take a leaf out of American diplomatic methods, and accept the Note in the same way in which our Minister signed it. Following our example, he could assent to the demands made upon him, and then say, as the old French Legitimist said to Niebuhr about the Charte, that it had been granted, but that, of course, nobody expected the King to observe it.

Possibly the way out of the tangle of treaty and legislation respecting an interoceanic canal may yet be found in the completion of the Panama Canal. At the annual meeting of the Panama Company in Paris on Thursday last, it was reported that negotiations to that end are pending between the company, the United States, and Colombia. Americans surely have every reason to hope for such a solution of the difficulty. The Panama route has just been vouched for by our own engineers as not only feasible, but on technical grounds superior to the Nicaragua location. Under the terms of its charter and existing treaties, the Panama Canal would be as wholly neutralized as if it were a natural channel of the sea. It could be finished at a saving of

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at least $50,000,000, as compared with the Nicaragua Canal. Here certainly is a case for American "horse-sense" and French lucidity to find a meeting-place and make a friendly agreement. If we refuse a fair offer, and proceed to build and fortify our own canal, what will happen was clearly intimated at Paris. The maritime nations of Europe will feel compelled to furnish funds and guarantees to the Panama Company. Then we should have two canals, neither of which could pay; and our sly little military short cut, for our own exclusive use in time of war, would be paralleled and made perfectly vain.

Notwithstanding the fact that there has been a strong and well-paid lobby at Washington, known and read of all men working for the Ship-Subsidy Bill during the past two years, many persons have been persuaded that the foreign steamship lines have raised a large sum of money for the purpose of defeating the bill, that they also have had agents at work in Washington, and that they have paid money to the Reform Club and to newspapers to influence public opinion. No doubt this incorrect notion has been spread abroad by Hanna, Griscom, and Smith. At all events, it has gone abroad. Fortunately, there is one way to settle the question definitely and to determine who and what are the lobby influences at work on the Ship-Subsidy Bill. Congress itself can investigate this matter through a committee. It can summon and interrogate the principal agents of the foreign steamship lines. They are all, we believe, American citizens, and are amenable to process, but if any should seek to evade process, suspicion would justly fall upon them. We presume that our suggestion will fall upon deaf ears. We do not believe that Mr. Hanna wants any authentic information on this subject. His purpose can be best accomplished by throwing out hints and innuendoes; but if he really wants to know the facts about the lobby pro and con, the means for acquiring them are quite within his reach.

Congressman Bailey of Kansas is a farmer, but he made a very strong speech against the Grout bill for the suppression of oleomargarine. In the first place, he exposed the false pretence that agriculture is specially interested in the fight against oleomargarine. The latter article is composed of the fat of cattle and swine, and the oil of cotton seed, all three ingredients being products of agriculture. Who, then, are the people who are making such a deparate push against oleomargarine? They are chiefly those who manage creameries. There are good creameries and bad creameries, and Mr. Bailey knows both kinds. One of the latter, situated at Hutchinson, Kansas, undertakes the renovation of miscellaneous butter. The stuff comes in from the surrounding country at the rate of about 500 pounds per day. It is made by farmers' wives and carried to the country merchants, who dump the sweet and rancid indiscriminately in barrels which they forward to the creamery from time to time. There it is worked over with soda and rinsed off, salted, colored yellow, printed, and put on the market as Creamery No. 2. "In this same manner," says Mr. Bailey, "the renovating or processing of butter is carried on all over our country." The point of this is that the Grout bill, while professing to protect the public against impure and deleterious compounds, really aims to suppress and keep out of the market the only article which is made under Government inspection and must necessarily be pure. The factories where rancid butter is worked over, doctored, drugged, and turned out as Creamery No. 2 are not interfered with.

The investigations of the Booz Court of Inquiry developed from day to day more and more discreditable facts as to West Point hazing methods. It was bad enough that cadets should confess that their perverted system of cadet "honor" makes them consider themselves superior to regulations and oaths, but on Friday there were also brought out authenticated cases of downright brutality. Cadet MacArthur has the reputation of being one of the most promising young men at West Point, having ability and industry. The only possible reason for hazing him until he fell into convulsions was the fact that his father is commander of 70,000 troops in the Philippines. It is useless in the face of such occurrences as have already been related to talk of the desirability of a "little" hazing to take the freshness out of newly arrived cadets. No set of young men have ever been found at any institution who could be trusted to see that the process stopped at the right time. It has inevitably developed into brutality wherever tried. If conclusive evidence of the serious ill-treatment of Cadet Booz has not been brought out by the Board of Inquiry, it is already evident that West Point's reputation has been smirched in a way to injure the standing of that institution for years to come.

Some self-gratulation is heard at the Treasury Department as a result of what is called the success of the refunding operations under the law of 1900. There was $839,000,000 of three classes of bonds, bearing interest at 3, 4, and 5 per cent. respectively, all maturing within eight years, for which the holders were authorized to receive new bonds running thirty years at 2 per cent. interest, plus a cash bonus computed on a certain basis fixed in the law. Rather more than one-half of these bonds were sent in and exchanged, and the cash bonus paid amounted to $42,000,000. The saving in interest on these bonds till the time of their maturity was about $10,000,000, and this saving forms the subject of congratulation. The fact that these bonds have to run some twenty-two years longer than the old ones is ignored. Two per cent. interest on say $450,000,000 of bonds is $9,000,000 per annum, or $180,000,000 for twenty-two years, all of which will be a dead loss if the Government should be able to pay off these bonds at or before their maturity. The loss will be in proportion to the amount that might be paid off at or near maturity. It will be remembered that Secretary Windom, in a case where a large amount of the public debt drawing 6 per cent. interest came due, extended them, with the consent of the holders, at a lower rate of interest, not for a definite time, but during the pleasure of the United States, thus enabling the Government to pay them at par at any time. Such a method of dealing with the outstanding 3s, 4s, and 5s was entirely feasible. It was not adopted in the present case, for the reason that it was deemed best to postpone consideration of the national bank-note question to a more convenient season. If the bonds were paid off at maturity, the existing security of the bank-notes would be removed, and the necessity of providing something else to take its place would become pressing. This may have been a good reason, politically speaking. It may have been unwise to bring on too many financial questions for solution at once, or to allow them to drift. But that view does not justify the Treasury Department in treating the American people as infants by assuring them that they have made a great saving when they have actually made a loss.

Bryan has been making another speech at his home, in which he referred to the matter of his future. He said that the question whether he should ever be a candidate for office again was one which "must be determined by events," and added that "time may prove that my work is to advocate rather than to execute." This sounds as though even Bryan had been affected by the fact that, under his leadership for the second time, the Democratic party had encountered a defeat far more overwhelming than when he first ran for the Presidency. It is certainly plain that Democrats generally throughout the country have been profoundly impressed by this showing. Nothing could be clearer than the evidence that Democrats are tired of a policy which has brought the party into the contemptible position that it now occupies, and are in no mood to accept as a perpetual candidate the man who has twice led them to defeat. "An election does not change principles," was one of Mr. Bryan's remarks on Wednesday

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week. But it often does settle the attitude of the nation toward principles. In 1868 the Democratic National Convention declared that "we regard the reconstruction acts (so called) of Congress, as such, as usurpations, and unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void." There was a principle for which the Democratic party stood. The election showed that the country would not accept this principle. The people declared that they accepted the reconstruction legislation as valid, and that they proposed to have the Government conducted on that theory, as it has been ever since that day. If there had been a Bryan then, he might have insisted that the party should "reaffirm the New York platform of 1868" indefinitely, and the party could have gone on getting beaten indefinitely. But there was a Tilden, and by 1876 he had succeeded in persuading a Democratic National Convention to adopt a platform declaring "our devotion to the Constitution of the United States, with its amendments universally accepted as a final settlement of the controversies that engendered civil war"; and on that platform the Democrats carried all the doubtful States, for the first time since 1856.

That was a refreshing announcement about the Governor-elect which came from Albany on Thursday—that Mr. Odell would not avail himself of the authority granted by the last Legislature to appoint a law adviser at a salary of $5,000, with an allowance of $4,000 for clerk and stenographer hire, but would call upon the Attorney-General for all opinions and for an examination of legislative measures. This is what an Attorney-General is for—in the language of the statute, not only to prosecute and defend all actions and proceedings in which the State is interested, but also to "have charge and control of all the legal business of the departments and bureaus of the State, or of any office thereof which requires the services of attorney or counsel in order to protect the interests of the State." The Attorney-General is authorized to appoint such deputies as he may deem necessary, and if a deputy is required for the special purpose of examining bills during the three months that the Legislature is in session, one can be employed for this quarter of the year at small expense. It is a piece of ridiculous extravagance to maintain an Attorney-General's department which is established to attend to the legal business of the State, and then expend $9,000 a year extra for a legal adviser to the Governor.

It is most gratifying news that the destruction of the Palisades by blasting operations has been stopped, and that a feasible project has been devised for saving these wonderful cliffs to delight future generations. Commissioners appointed by the Legislatures of New York and New Jersey last winter have been working quietly and effectively, until they have now made an agreement with all the parties concerned that there shall be no more blasting before next June, nor ever after that date if their scheme can be carried out. The $5,000 appropriated by the New Jersey Legislature was devoted to the expenses of surveys, title searches, and the like, while the $10,000 from the State Treasury of New York has been paid down to bind a bargain by which all the quarry properties will be sold for $132,500. Certain men in New York city have agreed to contribute privately $122,500, the remainder of the purchase price of these properties, provided the Legislatures of New York and New Jersey will this winter appropriate enough money to enable the joint Commission to acquire all the other property on which it has options between Fort Lee and Huyler's Landing, and a sufficient sum to construct a driveway at the base of the Palisades. The largest and most influential property-owners have agreed to give the face of the Palisades and sell the land between the base of the cliffs and the Hudson River on reasonable terms, upon the understanding that the Commissioners will try to establish an interstate park embracing all the land from the top of the steep edge of the cliffs down to the water's edge, to construct a driveway at the base of the cliffs as speedily as possible, and to have ferries connect this driveway with the driveways on the New York side of the river.

A new member of Parliament, Mr. Markham, brought a most serious matter to the attention of the Commons in connection with the troubled state of affairs in South Africa. This was, that all civil appointments of any value made by Sir Alfred Milner in the Rand or in the Orange River Colony had been given to men directly connected with the Jameson raid. Mr. Markham specified case after case, and was able, from his recent travels in South Africa and his intimate knowledge of the ins and outs of the Johannesburg conspiracy, to show how scandalous the business had often been. The Dutch can scarcely be blamed for distrusting the English good faith if they now see the Cape Government ostentatiously rewarding those whom an English court had found guilty of violating the Foreign Enlistment Act, and plotting against a friendly state. The thing is, in fact, so indefensible that the Chancellor was fain to assure the Commons that many of these unhappy appointments must have been made under a misapprehension or temporarily; at any rate, the Government would see that the blunder was righted.

Paul Leroy-Beaulieu's call for an "economic alliance" in Europe, in order to withstand the increasing pressure of American industrial competition, is a return to an ancient thesis of his. He has before advocated a European Zollverein. Being an enlightened economist, he has naturally argued for the freeing of trade from every needless fetter. It is only a new form of attack by which he now shows the industrial drag of protective tariffs. His contention is that Europe, to meet the challenge of the young giant of the West, must strip herself of all such impedimenta as interstate taxes on trade. But M. Beaulieu has against him not only the national jealousy, or ill-will, which leads France and Germany to penalize each other's commerce, but also the fact that militarism makes it necessary to scrape together every penny which taxation can possibly be made to yield. The French economist would have gone more directly to the mark if he had cried aloud for disarmament, as the only alternative to industrial decadence. Yet his confession that American "infant" industries are now driving European manufacturers to the wall, has its distinctly comic side in view of the Washington notion that our many puling infants are still in need of Government posset. An infant that has jumped out of bed and taken to beating its mother obviously requires no further coddling.

The royal commission of inquiry into the Italian Tammany, the Camorra of Naples, has pursued the dilatory methods characteristic of such bodies, but certain startling facts have already been made plain. For years past the city has kept no accounts of moneys expended. This, the defenders of the Camorra say, is presumptive proof that it has been spent honestly, or, if not quite that, it is at least time to stop an inquiry when you find that the absence of accounts makes it impossible to prove that the money has been spent dishonestly. Even more startling were the revelations of the previous life of Deputy and City Councillor Casale, the local boss, whose ill-judged suit for libel precipitated the whole investigation. Again it was the Socialist organ, *La Propaganda*, which brought the truth to light. The news is in the form of an official report made years ago by a local Prefect to Giolitti, then Prime Minister. The report stated that Casale had been dismissed from the army for breach of regulations, that he had subsequently enriched himself through ministering to the basest passions of the youth whom he corrupted. In this way he became a power in Naples—a man whose whisper could kill a score of fair reputations. The political uses of such a man became apparent to the boss of the time, De Zerbi, and it was he who undertook Casale's political education. He found an apt pupil, and this man, uneducated and grossly immoral, has for years ruled Naples by blackmail.

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THE FINANCIAL YEAR.

The year 1900 has been marked by the largest merchandise export trade in American history; by much the largest shipment of manufactures; by the largest expansion ever known in our money circulation; by the greatest iron production; by the heaviest volume of trade, as measured in clearing-house exchanges; by the highest aggregate of railway earnings; by the largest total of bank loans, sustained by the largest total of cash reserves in bank. Statistics not yet officially completed will undoubtedly show American gold production in 1900 to have exceeded all precedent, and the output of mineral products generally will equally surpass every previous record. If it were possible to trace the export of American capital, in the form of floating or fixed investment on the European markets, we should have the most striking exhibit of all.

Economists have not yet thoroughly sifted out the various causes for this remarkable rise in financial prestige, culminating in the last year of the century. Many factors have combined to produce such a phenomenon, and the test of a few more years will be necessary before their relative importance can be satisfactorily weighed. The bounty of nature—accidents, in large part, of climate and weather—accounts for a good deal. No human foresight could have predicted the coincidence of a series of bountiful American grain harvests with either deficient crops or impaired storehouse supplies abroad. The European "cotton famine" of the past year, which, through the immense expansion of our cotton exports, both in volume and in value, brought the autumn's outward trade to its unprecedented height, was due to circumstances quite beyond our control. One very important test of the permanency of this trade revival will be furnished when our crops some season run short, or when agricultural production in the outside world exceeds, as it undoubtedly will, all its previous records.

But it has been the function of the year 1900 to show that other forces have been at work in the problem than those of 1880, for instance, of 1891, or even 1897—in each of which years abnormal foreign demand for American farm products gave this country an advantage over the rest of the commercial world. More than in any earlier decade of prosperity, the epoch culminating with 1900 has been marked by resolute liquidation of debt by American industry. This has been manifest in numerous directions. The paying-off of farm mortgages came first; but the wholesale redemption of our securities held abroad was only another move of the same nature. The large American corporations have followed the same lead—if not by actual redemption of debt, at least by the raising of fresh capital by new shares instead of fixed liabilities, and by using surplus revenue for improvement of property, instead of resorting to the money market. Each of these processes, considered in the abstract, might be taken as the plain dictate of common sense, but this sort of common sense is not always, perhaps not usually, witnessed in times of great prosperity. No country has been more fruitful than the United States in examples of farmers using one good harvest as a basis for wholesale borrowing to prepare for another; of railroad companies issuing bonds for every conceivable purpose, because they could be readily sold; of the country as a whole increasing its debt to foreign capital to sustain domestic speculation. More causes than one have operated in this use of the new resources to cancel old debt, but the hard experience of 1893 and 1894, when the lessons of it were finally mastered, had very much to do with the events of the subsequent half-dozen years. It is undoubtedly true that the world at large has experienced a revival of profitable industry during this period, and that in any case the United States would have had some share in the results. Our share, however, has been out of all proportion to that of other nations.

The question of the permanency of the new American position in finance may properly be judged in the light of these circumstances. One reason for the very great confidence in American finances now exhibited both at home and abroad is the visible demonstration that the country's prosperity stands on a solid basis. Where American industry is competing on equal terms with the outside world, and leading, there is little danger of any overwhelming trade reaction here. Where the West is the creditor of the East, and the East is the creditor of Europe, conditions which brought down the fabric of American finance in 1890 and 1893 have wholly ceased to exist. Whether they will exist again in the future depends on the manner in which that country makes use of its present remarkable situation. Unbridled speculation is the greatest danger which now besets it, for experience teaches that the strongest position can be impaired or reversed by a popular mania of this sort. Yet even here the inference from last year's history is that such a movement is likely to be checked in time.

THE ALL-POWERFUL SENATE.

"Resolved, that the power of the Senate has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." Some such parody of the historic Parliamentary resolution concerning the English Crown might well be introduced in our House of Representatives. The facts are beyond dispute. They are now so patent that even a foreign writer like Jules Roche, discussing the jealousy shown towards the French Senate by the popular chamber, puts it down as incontrovertible that in the United States the Representatives are "almost nothing," while the American Senate is "by far the more powerful of the two houses of Congress."

See how the present legislative situation at Washington bears out this judgment. The Senate has as yet done nothing—if we except the way in which it has "done" the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. But it is expected to have the final word in everything. What form is the Army Bill to have when it goes on the statute-book? Ask the Senate. In what way will taxes be reduced? Senators alone can tell. Will there be a ship-subsidy bill, an interoceanic canal bill, an oleomargarine bill, a bill on any subject you can mention? Go to the Senate wing of the Capitol to find out. Everybody can see this clearly in the recess lull. When Congress meets again, all eyes will be upon the Senate. What it will do, or refuse to do, is the one question which all who are interested in national legislation, whether routine or extraordinary, would like to have answered. The House cuts but a small figure comparatively. It is counted on to do obediently whatever the party managers ask of it. The only real contest will be in the Senate. By comparison, indeed, the House seems, in M. Roche's words, "presque rien."

How complete a reversal of historic position this is, one perceives on recalling the fact that it was the House in which for many years our most active spirits found their favorite theatre. The Senate was long the home of theoretic statesmen—the Websters and Calhouns—who delighted in high debate about the fundamental principles of government; but it was in the House that daring tribunes made their reputations and powerfully moulded legislation. Henry Clay and John Quincy Adams, among the elders, Randall and Blaine and Carlisle and Reed, of a later day—it was the American House of Representatives which enabled them to display their peculiar talents and win their especial fame. Who that is mindful of the way in which the House, when dominated by these personalities, held the rapt attention of the nation, can fail to see that its glory has now largely departed, and been given to another—the Senate?

One reason of the transfer to the Senate of power over the legislative business of the country is, paradoxically, that the Senate is a body so poorly fitted to transact business. What we mean is this. Since the adoption of the Reed rules, the House is a legislative machine under perfect control of the majority. It registers the decisions of a party caucus with speed and accuracy. But this, curiously enough, and certainly quite beyond the intention of Mr. Reed, has had the effect of making the Senate almost su-

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preme in all matters in debate between the two houses. The way it works is as follows. Senators carefully nurse along a contentious bill. They debate it interminably; they amend it to their taste; at length, after the semblance of a terrific struggle, they pass it. Then they go into conference with the House, and solemnly declare that the bill must be made law exactly as it left the Senate. To send it back again would mean to defeat it altogether. "You know we cannot close debate," the Senate conferees say to the Representatives. "You see what a fight we had to get the measure through as it stands. Now, if you want anything done at all, take the bill as we give it to you, for it will be killed if you send it back to the Senate. In the House you can put through anything you like. We in the Senate are at the mercy of obstructionists. So take it or leave it."

Of how many important bills has this been practically the history in recent years! In the matter of the Wilson Tariff Bill, of the Voorhees amendments to the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law, of the Dingley Tariff, of the Porto Rico Bill, the Senate has compelled the House to give way. And in all cases the deciding reason has been substantially the threat of no legislation unless the Senate might dictate. In other words, party government has thorough control of the House; it has only partial control of the Senate. The "courtesy of the Senate" has prevented the adoption of the *clôture*, and has at the same time hindered the party in nominal majority from making its will effective. Senators think they have a personal and prescriptive right to shape legislation by "courtesy." "Courtesy" is more powerful than party. The reciprocity treaties, for example, are Republican party measures, if anything can be, but Republican Senators are hanging them up on personal grounds. Some Senator points out that the French treaty would affect the manufacturers of cheap jewelry in his State, and "courtesy" is appalled at the thought of taking it up against his objection. So it is hung up to dry and die.

To complete the tale, we have only to add the President's abject surrender to the Senate. In matters of legislation, in treaties, in patronage, he has no will or wish against the Senate. It finds him a dutiful recording clerk to write its commands into law, to fill out commissions for its appointees to office. No wonder that, with such a profuse flinging of power into its hands, the Senate has become the central and driving force of our national legislative machine. Its successive usurpations have been silently effected, but we see what they have come to in total. The present juncture, when the two months remaining of the session are to be taken up with so much important legislation, and when the Senate, having so far done nothing, is openly preparing to determine the form of everything, should open many eyes hitherto blinded to the increasing and undue power of our upper chamber.

A more vigorous protest, a better fight for its prerogatives, might be expected from the House of Representatives, were it not for one thing. Every Representative hopes in his heart to be Senator one day, and, therefore, thinks twice before trying to clip the wings of power which he may come to exercise himself. But the abuse is getting too obvious, the balance of legislative power too seriously disturbed. We cannot go on much longer letting all our great public measures be moulded in secret by men who do not even acknowledge the obligation of party, much less national interest, and who insist upon shaping or misshaping laws in accordance with their own personal aims, or those of the special interests they represent. The House will have to make a stand, and we hope to see it do so soon. It would be a most healthy thing if the House were to resent and resist the overweening pretensions of the Senate, even to the point of forcing an extra session of Congress.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY HUMBUG.

The facts which militate most strongly against the Ship-Subsidy Bill are the news items which are constantly appearing in the press. Here, for example, is one which was published December 21, 1900:

"AMERICAN STEEL PLATES CHEAPEST.

"GLASGOW, December 20.—Clyde shipbuilders recently placed orders for 150,000 tons of steel plates in the United States, at a saving of £50,000 ($250,000). The depression in the Scotch steel and malleable-iron trades is acute. Fourteen furnaces will be damped at the end of the year. The steel works are talking of closing indefinitely."

This is one of the notorious facts relating to the comparative cost of shipbuilding here and abroad, yet they are generally ignored by those who are demanding the ship subsidy. There was a time, before we had begun to do much in the way of building iron and steel ships, when such ships could be built more cheaply in England than here; but as far back as 1869, when a committee was appointed by Congress to investigate shipping interests, John Roach testified: "If Congress will take of the duties from American iron, reducing it to the price of foreign iron, then we are prepared to compete with foreign ship-builders. The labor question is misstated. We are prepared to meet that difficulty and to ask no further legislation on the subject."

As a result of this representation, Congress long ago put all materials for ship-building for the foreign trade on the free list, but the change of trade conditions has made even that unnecessary. Now we can sell at a profit in Great Britain steel plates and even coal coming from Pennsylvania, and, with the cheaper price of American wood and the superiority of American machinery and of American workmen, the trade conditions are already in our favor as the result of a perfectly natural and healthy outgrowth of our own resources and abilities. Aside from the iniquity of the Subsidy Bill as a piece of state socialism and class legislation, there is no more reason for subsidized American shipyards than for subsidized American bicycle factories.

Nor is there any justification for a subsidy on the ground of the higher wages of an American crew. American wages, as a whole, are considerably higher than wages abroad, but the fact that we can compete in innumerable manufactured articles with any foreign nation shows that, for a given result, American labor costs no more per unit of work done than the less efficient foreign labor. But even if there were no element of increased efficiency represented by the higher American wages, this Ship-Subsidy Bill is not drawn so as to meet even that difficulty. This is one of the points on which the bill, which starts out with a sensational appeal to American patriotism by claiming that it will increase the number of American sailors, utterly breaks down when it comes to the test of manning the subsidized ships. The bill purports to require that at least one-fourth of the crew of a subsidized ship shall be United States citizens, but this requirement is absolutely neutralized by the provision that, "if an American crew cannot be reasonably obtained," foreigners may be hired. That is, the ship-owner may offer wages at the market rate, and if Americans will not ship at that rate, he may make up a crew of foreigners. In other words, after having been compensated in advance out of the public taxes because he said that he was obliged to pay high American wages, he may, nevertheless, for all that the bill contains, go on paying the market rate and pocket the subsidy.

This clamor for a ship subsidy is a fair sample of what may be expected from corporate interests which have once tasted the advantages of Governmental interference in their behalf, for there is virtually no other industry which at present receives greater benefits from the Government. In addition to the free raw materials (even if those were necessary to meet competition, as, we repeat, they are not), our navigation laws prohibit the registry by Americans of foreign-built ships. They absolutely prohibit foreign vessels from engaging in the enormous American coastwise commerce—and this is a provision which has no counterpart in British law.

Attention has been directed more than once to the fact that the pending bill gives the largest subsidies to the fast-sailing passenger ships which carry little freight, although the pretence is made that it is a bill to promote the export trade. The New York

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Press, a pretty sound Republican paper, has at last taken notice of this fact, and advises the friends of the bill to drop this feature of it and make it what it purports to be, a bill to promote commerce rather than excursion parties to Europe. In order to save the bill, the *Press* urges Senator Hanna to "set the American Line Jonahs ashore," and the *Tribune* apparently endorses the sentiment by reprinting it in a conspicuous place. Mr. J. A. Heckman, whose name we seem to remember in connection with the Shayne Association and the baggage controversy, writes to us also protesting against legislation whose design or tendency is to furnish cheap fares at the public expense for tourists who go abroad to get their clothes. We agree fully with Mr. Heckman as to this.

Among the humbugs that we have had occasion to expose in the course of the controversy on this subsidy measure is the pretence that the bill is needed to promote ship-building in American yards. We have shown that any artificial stimulus is quite unnecessary, since the shipyards have more orders on hand than they can execute. In confirmation of this fact, we may point to the testimony given before the Industrial Commission on the 21st of December by Mr. Charles H. Cramp, who said:

"The shipyards in either America or England cannot build ships enough to supply the demand."

This interesting fact was stated by Mr. Cramp as one of the reasons why he favored the Subsidy Bill. We cannot commend the logic of his statement to the Commission, but we are sure that he speaks knowingly of the rush of orders for new ships and the impossibility of filling all of them. Whatever may be the case with those who navigate American ships, the men who build them are not the fit subjects of alms.

ROOSEVELT'S TERM AS GOVERNOR.

How truncated and, on the whole, disappointing the Governorship of Theodore Roosevelt has been, he himself is a witness. On the 12th of last February he gave out an official statement at Albany, assigning as the reason why he could not and would not be a candidate for the Vice-Presidency the fact that the "great problems" which he had faced in New York had been only "partially solved." His work, he said, was but "begun," and he needed (and, of course, was determined to have) three years more to carry it to "a successful conclusion." Not only, however, did he fail to get the two years more of office which he desired; he did not even utilize the one year which remained to him. Gov. Roosevelt was elected for the Constitutional term of two years; he gave his services to the State for a period not to exceed eighteen months. This is the first great fact which glares at us in his record. Since last June he has been bodily out of the State a large part of the time; the State has apparently been out of his mind nearly all of the time. Don't come to me, he said a few weeks ago, when approached for sympathy and coöperation in the urgent work of reform in city and State; "my work is done." This is the same work, be it remembered, which he said last February was only "begun." There is a tombstone wonder, what it ever was begun for if so soon it was to be done for.

We see, however, in this broken and baffled career as Governor a kind of sardonic comment of fate upon one of Col. Roosevelt's favorite political maxims, namely, that the true reformer must never be in a hurry. He himself used to be. Ex-President Harrison has laughingly described the ardor of the Roosevelt whom he knew as Civil-Service Commissioner under his Administration. That impetuous young man wanted to reform everything "right away." But that was before old experience had taught him the sound philosophy of reform—which is, not to undertake or expect very much, and to be content with a little progress each year, knowing that you will be there next year and the year after to get a little more. But in real life, the Governor must now see, the thing does not work that way. Just as he is laying out his long and beautiful programme of progressive reform, "comes the blind Fury with the abhorred shears"—that is, Platt with a tricky nomination for the Vice-Presidency—"and slits the thin-spun life." The real moral of Roosevelt's experience is that reformers should ever be mindful that they must work while it is day, for the night cometh when no man can work. Therefore, they must demand at once and vehemently even that "impossible best" which Roosevelt sneers at, since his heralded plan of partial and leisurely reform is too apt to result in such disappointments as the Governor tacitly confesses have befallen him.

His successes as Governor have been so considerable as to show how easily they might have been much greater. With vigor and courage he insisted upon stiffening the civil-service laws, out of which his predecessor had boasted of taking the "starch." The Legislature made a wry face, but did as Gov. Roosevelt, in the high prestige of his first days in office, ordered it to do. The result was the strongest and most stringent civil-service law that we have ever had. This makes it seem the greater pity that the Governor refused later on to place certain classes of appointees—the tax-transfer appraisers, for example—under the provisions of his admirable law, although urgently requested to do so by business interests, by civil-service reformers, and by his own State Civil-Service Commission, and although he himself was on record against the flimsiness of the reasons he gave for not doing it. A similar inconsistency, or letting-down, appears in the character of the Governor's appointments to office. His announced standard at first was, the best man he could get; his practical if not confessed standard afterwards was, the best man the machine would let him have. Col. Partridge, a fine appointee, he put at the head of the State Public Works in defiance of the machine; when it came to ousting Payn from the office of Superintendent of Insurance, the Governor allowed Platt to dictate Payn's successor. We thus get, in retrospect, a total impression of hesitation and vacillation in a man from whom we had the right to expect uncompromising thoroughness and persistency in the cause of reform.

One of the strange illusions about Gov. Roosevelt—we are not sure whether he entertains it himself—is that he is fond of work. What he is really fond of is excitement. It is the clamorous life which most appeals to him. By a truly hard-working Governor we understand a man who will, when necessary, tie himself to his desk for fourteen hours out of the twenty-four and tear the heart out of documents, accounts, legislative bills, appeals, petitions; who will make himself personally acquainted with the details of the management of the prisons and asylums and hospitals of the State; who will carefully investigate public expenditures; who will ascertain his power and duty under the Constitution and laws, so as to refrain from hastily taking a position which he will have to abandon later as ridiculous; who will set himself to understand a tax law before he exerts all the power of the Executive to compel the Legislature to pass it, and then be obliged to call an extra session to undo his blunders. Work, thus understood, is obviously not of the kind that Gov. Roosevelt delights in. He would undertake it only on condition that "living pictures" should show him in the act, or that he be allowed to break off every five minutes to address the people. It is notorious that no Governor of recent years has been so ignorant of the actual business of the State. The charitable institutions have suffered palpable neglect during his term of office. His successor is already compelled to take up reforms and reorganization which Roosevelt should long ago have made his care. But such plodding labors are not for him.

When Col. Roosevelt was Police Commissioner in this city, Republican politicians used chucklingly to say that they found him "an easy mark." This did not mean that his integrity could be overcome, but only circumvented easily. The way to his confidence and favor, once discovered, was of a sort that the wayfaring man could not err therein. We believe the sly people who thought him "easy" considered his fundamental test of character to be something like the poet's "vociferated logic,"

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a noisy man being, with him, "always in the right." However that may be, it is certain that, later on, an astute judge of men, Boss Platt, found out Roosevelt's secret and played upon it to the discomfiture of his hopes and plans. Ambition, combined with a dread of breaking with his party machine, was the magic ring, Platt discovered, upon which he had only to rub in order to bring the rough-riding jinn obediently to heel, saying, "Here am I."

Col. Roosevelt brought to the Governorship qualities and a conception of office not unlike those of the Emperor William. He might have been justly called our "Theodore the Sudden" (*der Plötzliche*). A restlessness of temperament almost pathological, love of excitement, a fatal fondness for haranguing the public, brilliant and dashing personal qualities—these characteristics are showy, attractive, and win to their possessors troops of friends; but do they make the strong and efficient public servant? We can only say that Gov. Roosevelt's achievement and defeats in office simply confirm the long experience of mankind. Bolingbroke is the type of the glittering statesman who seeks office for the excitement it affords, and Bagehot's verdict upon his career and its lessons seems almost as if written to fit the Albany career of Roosevelt.

"We see in Bolingbroke's case," he writes, "that a life of great excitement is incompatible with the calm circumspection and the sound estimate of probability essential to great affairs; that, though the excited hero may perceive distant things which others overlook, he will overlook near things that others see; that, though he may be stimulated to great speeches which others could not make, he will also be irritated to petty speeches which others would not; that he will attract enmities, but not confidence; that he will not observe how few and plain are the alternatives of common business, and how little even genius can enlarge them; that his prosperity will be a wild dream of unattainable possibilities, and his adversity a long regret that these possibilities have departed."

THE CONGRESS AT PHILADELPHIA.

PHILADELPHIA, December 29, 1900.

Six years ago this month the affiliated philological and archæological societies met at Philadelphia in joint session to commemorate the death of Professor Whitney. This week the same societies, seven in number, met again on exactly the same days of the month, though for no more special purpose than to extend to each other the hand of fellowship, unless perhaps the close of the century and coincident anniversary of Chaucer's death were strands in the cord that on this occasion bound them together. The seven organizations are (omitting from their titles the superfluous "American") the Oriental, the Biblical Literature (and Exegesis), and Dialect Societies; the Philological, Spelling Reform, and Modern Language Associations; and the Archæological Institute. Thirty-five universities and colleges were represented, and more than an hundred papers were read at this Congress. No one pretended to hear quite all of these, though it was evident, from the worried faces and restless peregrination of some of the visitors, that only the impossibility of being in half-a-dozen places at once prevented them from gathering up all the wisdom brought hither from China, England, and the Pacific Coast, to say nothing of that produced nearer to the point of distribution.

Interesting was the relation of subjects discussed to the number of papers. The Dialect Society was without special sessions; but it held a business meeting, and for the rest sat quiescent under the wing of the Modern Language Association. The Spelling Reform Association was apparently content to be here in spirit. One looked in vain for any bodily manifestations of its presence, and its chief exponent, the venerable Dr. March, gave as his contribution not a paper on Spelling but on Modern Language Work. Is it possible that the Reform has reformed? But if no college interested itself in this erst burning question, all the more was it evident how great is the interest of the majority of philologists in historical and archæological work, between which, however, and pure philology on the one hand and Oriental research on the other the barriers are slight. Some of the Oriental papers were really archæological, and both the Archæological and Philological Societies sat amicably together in joint session on Friday, the second day of the Congress. At the sessions of these two societies were presented altogether over sixty papers. Linguistic and phonetic papers were rare, but nearly a dozen syntactical studies were offered. The fact that to some of the associations this was the only gathering in the year, while to others it was an additional meeting, doubtless had something to do with the amount of work shown. The Oriental Society, for example, convenes again in Easter week for its annual meeting, and this "extra" occasion brought out only a third of the usual number of papers.

From another point of view it was of passing interest to see where the work is doing in the various fields represented by the Congress. It was to be expected that the East would send more representatives than the distant West; it was in fact scarcely to be hoped that delegates should come from beyond the Middle West. But not only did Chicago and Michigan send speakers (not to count those who came with nothing to say), but at least one representative was welcomed from each of the universities of Kansas, Missouri, Oregon, and California. Nearer home, Harvard's several delegates covered most of the fields of research, as did those from Yale and Cornell, while Johns Hopkins and Columbia, besides their quota, sent a special orator apiece to show that scholars can be witty as well as wise. For, besides the research-papers in a narrower sense, it was arranged that there should be a few exercises of a more general character. All of Thursday afternoon and evening was devoted to these, beginning with the thoughtful address of welcome by Provost Harrison, who, in a cordial speech, voiced the hospitality which offered the use of the University buildings to the societies, and gave them a formal though no less agreeable reception on Thursday evening. The brilliant and characteristic address of Professor Gildersleeve on the Oscillations and Nutations of Philology concluded this series of general papers, while between the two came eight short addresses from delegates chosen by the different societies, Profs. Marquand and Sterrett, for example, representing the archæologists; Profs. Moore and Haupt, the Orientalists; and President Wheeler speaking for the philologians. At a later meeting, on Friday evening, Professor Price addressed as its President the Modern Language Association with a paper on the New Function of Modern Language Teaching, which all the affiliated societies were invited to hear and were well rewarded in hearing. An agreeable side of this Congress was the Chaucer session on Saturday morning, which many were obliged to miss, owing to the uncompromising nature of railway time-tables. Those who lived near enough to remain for this and still reach home before Sunday, enjoyed among other things Professor Schofield's and Professor Mead's studies of Chaucer's Sources, and that of the Structure of Chaucer's Verse by Professor Bright.

As said above, the delegates of many Eastern universities represented also most of the societies. Thus, from Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins came in each case papers covering nearly all the fields of work. The same is true of Bryn Mawr, which, as was to be expected, had left no province unworked. It is a pleasant duty to notice also that Bryn Mawr did not stand alone among women's colleges in offering results of original investigation. Barnard sent Professor Earle, and two excellent papers came from Smith College—one by Miss Scott on a source of Shakspere hitherto unappreciated, and one by Miss Boyd, "A Settlement of the Geometric Period at Karusi in Crete." Not without significance, perhaps, is the fact that all the representatives of Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Kansas, and Northwestern Universities belonged to the Modern-Language or Dialect Societies. Conversely, not a paper presented at the Oriental or Archæological Societies came from those regions, though the universities of (Ohio) Western Reserve, Michigan, and California, and Iowa College had delegates in the archæological body; the Oriental Society (as here represented by speakers) not being more Occidental than Chicago, if one dare suggest that Chicago is not in the East. Almost the same line marks off the productive members of the Philological Association, before which papers were read from the East, Iowa, Western Reserve, Chicago, Michigan, and California. That is to say, the East, the Western East (if one may use the expression), and the Northwest and Far West showed a greater influence of classical work, while the Southwest inclined more to modern language, to judge by the returns of this Congress. But, on the other hand, five out of the seven scholars who represented the University of Pennsylvania spoke only to the Modern Language Association, wherein perhaps Professor Learned's influence was potent. Of course, there is not basis here for more than a suggestion, which should, perhaps, be couched rather as an inquiry as to how far localization of aims may be true, especially as there are Orientalists in Tennessee and even in Texas. Among those present from abroad, it was pleasant to greet Dr. William A. P. Martin, recently returned from Pekin, who, by special invitation, addressed the general meeting on an autopsy of Chinese Diplomacy; and it was good to meet again one long-absent professor, now of Oxford, Louis Dyer, who read at the archæological session a paper,

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illustrated by slides of seals, on "New Aspects of Mycenæan Cultus."

Turning from these more prominent aspects and less familiar participants in the Congress, one scarcely knows where to begin or when to stop in enumerating the various papers read really or "read by title," the latter being a mystic addition to some dozen papers, usually implying that the writer of the paper has a hidden treasure which he will reveal in time, though now man may know only of its existence. But if the arrangement of the programme be followed, where the Oriental Society, oldest of the seven, has precedence, then may be mentioned in order the paper of the Rev. Dr. Winslow on "First Dynasty Discoveries," that of Professor Barton on "An Androgynous Babylonian Divinity," and that of Professor Robinson on his discovery of the Edomite High Place, on the Semitic side; while, on the Aryan side, Professor Oertel discussed *âpâna* as in-breathing, Dr. Gray continued his valuable Avestan contributions, and the present writer gave literary illustrations of the "Hindu Custom of Dying to Redress a Grievance."

For the philologians alone, Prof. J. H. Wright offered Notes on Demosthenes, Professor Hempl revivified the Salian Hymn; Professor Bennett discussed the so-called Stipulative Subjunctive; Professor Ashmore spoke on Bennett's Critique of Elmer's Theory of the Subjunctive; Professor Platner reviewed the Archaic Inscription in the Forum, and Drs. Sanders and Kellogg spoke of the Younger Ennius, and of Cicero's Letters, respectively, to select at random a few among many studies, further mention of which lack of space alone prevents. Still less complete must be the review of the scores of papers offered by the archæologists. President Wheeler told of Archæological Work under the Auspices of the University of California; Professor Perrin discussed the Hiereiai of Hellenikos and the Burning of the Argive Heraion; Professor Frothingham, the Contents of Etruscan Tombs; Professor Fowler, the Connection of Phidias with Perikles (the authors will pardon some abbreviation of title), while, at the pleasantly united conference of the Philological and Archæological Associations, Professor Seymour contributed an exhaustive study of Homeric Slavery and Servitude; Professor Wheeler showed the origin of a bronze statue of Heracles in Boston; and Professor Chase illustrated Sun Myths in Lithuanian Folk-songs. Many of the papers were illustrated by means of the stereopticon, and several of the writers read papers in more than one department. So great was the number of papers that the session was prolonged into Saturday.

In the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, Dr. Peters spoke on the "Religion of Moses"; Professor Thayer gave a report on the Palestinian School; Prof. T. F. Wright spoke on the Queen of Heaven; Professor Haupt, on "Interpolations in the Book of Proverbs"; and several scholars already named as contributors in the foregoing lists presented papers of value at this session, also. Among the most important essays read at the Modern Language Association, "The Home of the Heliand," by Professor Collitz, and the fruitful "Researches in Experimental Phonetics," by Professor Scripture, deserve (if one may discriminate) special mention, although (to omit all papers "read by title") Professor Wood's "Semasiology of Color Words" can scarcely be passed without a word of appreciation. The same is true of Prof. F. M. Warren's "Sources of *Thèbes* and *Énéas*." This session closed with a striking illustration of modern "Literary Manners," given by Mr. C. M. Magee.

It would be pleasant to give better than headings, but one could not condense enough to furnish much more than is offered by the titles thus hastily selected. These will show, in some degree, at least, the wide range of subjects and interests exhibited in this second Congress of the affiliated societies, the only objection to which is its multifarious character. For scientific purposes a congress is too kaleidoscopic, and as there is little time to discuss anything, there is no use in reading some of the technical papers. But, as a spectacle, it is inspiring. Nor can that subordinate but important function of the congress, namely, to converse, be easily estimated at its real value. Many came not for platform-speeches, but for reunion, where wisdom might be inhaled incidentally amid the talk of friends. For them, too, provision was made, and the hospitable University and hard-worked Local Committee, however small their reward in appearance, will at least be enriched by the thought that they not only have done much to further zeal in good work by thus bringing the societies together, but they have also received the blessing of the individual lone student, who welcomes new wisdom, but needs still more the grateful sense of kind.

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

FOGAZZARO.

ALASSIO, November 17, 1900.

There seldom exists a thoroughly adequate reason for publishing the biography of a man, a literary man at least, while he is still alive. This applies with special force to a writer like Fogazzaro, who has never given the world anything to talk about except his books; who, although an unusually successful author, as things go in Italy, was until recently read only among the most cultivated classes, while his person was unknown to the public. When, many years ago, I bought a copy of 'Daniele Cortis,' the bookseller told me that the work already ranked "almost as a classic." Indeed, the first translation had been published by Henry Holt in New York, and it had attracted attention in other countries, but in Italy it had gone through no more than four editions. That was already a success for an Italian novel at the time. The author's other works—the poems ("Miranda," "Valtolda," etc.), 'Malombra,' 'Il Mistero del Poeta,' were successful in the same modest measure. Italians, as a rule, did not read Italian novels—as, indeed, especially among "smart" people, there are many who do not even yet. But there came a change. Before and after 1890, Italian books had occasionally received the honor of translation, 'Daniele Cortis' among them. It was in the early months of 1896 (January-April) that our author was discovered in Paris; the Italians were having their turn of French popularity. The effect of this discovery in Italy, where the good opinion of France is apt to have the value of final authority, was tremendous. In fifteen years previous to '96, seven editions of 'Malombra' had appeared; in that year were published three new ones, and three years later the number had reached seventeen. 'Daniele Cortis' could boast of but four editions in the eleven years of its life, but between '96 and '99 no less than eighteen were issued, while 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' published when the tide of popularity had already set in, counts more than thirty. Popularity and consequent sale of works have, in these last years, been helped by a lecture delivered by Fogazzaro in Paris in the French tongue, and very well received, and perhaps yet more, with the upper classes at least, by the author's attitude toward religion. He is "the believer," *il credente*, and has been adopted by the well-thinking as their representative writer, a sort of standard-bearer. Now the champion, even of the best cause in the world, is apt to be esteemed by the vulgar among his followers less for his intrinsic merits than for his supposed value to themselves. The result is pure gain to those who otherwise might never have read Fogazzaro's charming books; but religion in Italy is very near to politics, and politics lend but a troubled light to judgment of literature.

Fogazzaro's sudden leap into notoriety naturally suggested to publishers the want of a biography, and in 1897 an exceedingly slender performance was put forth by Sebastiano Rumor, nearly half of which in bulk and more than half in importance consisted of a bibliography of the poet's works, even to the least of them, and of the critical articles to which they had given occasion. This bibliography, brought down to date, is embodied in the volume before me.* Of its numbers (one hundred and fifty nearly), four novels, two volumes of tales, and two of poems contain all that most readers need care to know. In Sig. Molmenti's book the remainder, after deduction of the bibliography, is of far greater value than in that of his predecessor. It is scarcely exact to call it a biography: the few elementary facts relative to Fogazzaro's life contained in it are scarcely more than a mere student of literature might reasonably insert in a volume of criticism. Fortunately, Sig. Molmenti did not think it necessary to eke out his facts by indiscretions; he has given us a book which might be better entitled, 'About Fogazzaro's Works and Some Other Things.' Under that title scarcely anything but good could be said of it.

We have, then, a series of essays, some in criticism and all connected more or less intimately with the published writings of Fogazzaro. The first is on the return of the century to faith and the ideal, after a middle period of exaltation of science, of materialism and positivism. The review ranges easily from Manzoni to Zola and from Buckle to Sar Péladan. A relation between it and the subject of the book is made at the end by including Fogazzaro among the distinguished representatives of the new direction.

The other two essays, apart from a chapter of biography and another on the character of the man, are rather more intimately connected with the matter in hand. They are (1) on the Italian attitude towards landscape beauty, and (2) on the theory of evolution. The distinguishing mark of Fogazzaro's poetry renders the first quite pertinent, while his adaptation of the theory of Darwin to Christian belief, a system of which Sig. Molmenti somewhere says in effect that Fogazzaro is the sole exponent, without followers, gives good reason for the second. Without such amplitude of treatment this

*"Pompeo Molmenti: Antonio Fogazzaro, la sua Vita e le sue Opere.' Con acqueforti e la bibliografia del Fogazzaro compilata da Sebastiano Rumor. Milan: Hoepli. 1900. Pp. 245.

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book would have been a mere pamphlet, and as the three digressions are good reading, we can receive them with thanks. But before saying anything further of them, we ought to mention one feature of the book that is less acceptable.

The facts of the biography are few, and at times it seems that Sig. Molmenti has thought necessary to smother them in flowers of speech in order to give importance to their scarcity and simplicity. How is this for a statement that Fogazzaro was born? "Nacque in Vicenza, la bianca, graziosa città, patria del Palladio, che la adornò di molti edifici, ridenti nella loro classica euritmia." Our language can with difficulty render this passage without making it appear awkward and hobbling as well as swollen; rather than be unnecessarily unjust we leave it as it is. There is not much of this sort of thing, however, and we may return to the Italian attitude towards landscape beauty. It is a common statement of English writers that the Italians have no sentiment for nature, basing the accusation upon the predominance given to the human figure in painting, and the fact that in literature landscape is, relatively, slightly treated. It is, therefore, interesting to know what a cultivated Italian has to say about the matter, and to many it will be a relief to learn that these children of the sunny land are not quite so insensible in this respect as their critics would make them out to be. Their sentiment of nature is different from ours, *voilà tout.* "Imaginations classic and serene are the Italians, and rarely can one find in their poetry that quite modern sentiment of a gentle pantheism enfolding mountain and plain, fields and woods, which gives rise in many poets of Germany, France, and England to such pleasant sports of fancy (*fa soavemente fantasticare*)" Sig. Molmenti adds that the Italian tongue has no equivalent for our "reverie." The dictionaries, indeed, translate it by *meditazione*, which goes to show that the dictionary-makers at least do not apprehend its meaning. The word *fantasticare*, used just now, suggests the doubt that, after all, the thing may not be quite unknown to Italian youth. However that may be, Sig. Molmenti maintains that Italians are not deficient in love of landscape beauty; their appreciation is æsthetic rather than sentimental or psychological. Formerly exceptions were rare; some of the masters of the *quattrocento* in painting reveal an exquisite sense of the spiritual aspect of landscape, as, among poets, does Dante, and, after him, Petrarch and Leopardi. Is he sure that he has forgotten no one? The moderns, at any rate, are like the rest of the world. D'Annunzio, notwithstanding his artificiality, is a genuine poet of the inner sense of landscape, and so are many others; but Fogazzaro above all is an interpreter of nature, the peer of those northerners who *soavemente fantasticano.*

There are readers, and not necessarily stupid ones either, who may fail to follow Sig. Molmenti in some of the distinctions of this chapter. Where he is incontestably clear, however, as well as interesting, is in his literary criticisms. Here he shows an independence of judgment thoroughly to his credit. With generous admiration for the poetry of Fogazzaro, he allows that the poet is not equal to the prose-writer, and quotes the saying of some one that in the verses "there is too much poetry and too little verse." With regard to 'Malombra,' while doing justice to the admirable delineation of characters, the humor, the beauty of some of the descriptions, he has no tenderness for its melodramatic framework. He also makes common cause with those who censure the personification of natural features: "the blades of grass that listen motionless to the distant music," "the voices of the leafage," and many similar embellishments, which disappear entirely in the soberer style of the later works. In his account of two of these, 'Daniele Cortis' and 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' he regards the former as the greater work of art, while he follows all the world in giving his heart to the latter. With pardonable confusion between heart and judgment, he agrees with the sentence of Arturo Graf, that no work has appeared in Italy since 'I Promessi Sposi' worthier to be put alongside of that unique romance. The 'Mistero del Poeta' appeared like a delicate intermezzo between the two more stirring performances, and among the tales that from different periodicals have been gathered into the two volumes, 'Fedele' and 'Racconti Brevi,' there are a good number that may be cordially recommended to the lovers of good things. To mention but one in the former volume, "Pereat Rochus," the story of the sublime obstinacy of a humble country priest, told with lightness of manner and an exquisite play of humor, is nothing less than a little masterpiece.

Sig. Molmenti closes his account of the literary work of Fogozzaro with some revelations (if indiscretions, we are glad to condone them) about a forthcoming novel, 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno,' which promises to be rich in the quality that the present writer cannot help esteeming finest among all that make precious the novels we have considered—their humor. It brightens the lurid background of 'Malombra,' and softens the severity of 'Daniele Cortis,' and in 'Piccolo Mondo Antico' is the charm of charms that brightens and sweetens the whole book, and is great part of the secret of its popularity. Others have celebrated in Fogazzaro the Christian evolutionist, or the *credente*, or the moralist, or the writer *comme il faut;* for us it is enough that, among the crowd of dreary, morbid, pessimistic novels, his few shine with kindly light, clear, sweet, and wholesome. This for the general public is perhaps their most endearing quality. "Good wine needs no bush"; but for those who do not know it, it may be said that the vintage to which Sig. Molmenti invites us is of the best, sparkling, delicate, and sound. S. K.

Correspondence.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT ASSOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is twenty years since two young Boston architects, Messrs. Clarke and Bacon, made an adventurous trip through the Grecian Archipelago in the little cutter *Dorian*, looking for a site for explorations in Greek archæology. The result of their preliminary examination was that, in 1881, the Archæological Institute of America sent out to Assos an exploring party, tempted by the insufficiently examined acropolis, and especially by the ruins of its remarkable temple, which had been described and illustrated by Texier in a way to excite curiosity as much as to gratify it. This exploration, the first serious undertaking of the Institute, was made by Messrs. Clarke and Bacon with a young Englishman, Mr. Koldewey, who has since become noted among English archæologists, assisted from time to time by several American students. It not only proved the best possible school to Americans for the study of Greek archæology and its methods of investigation, bringing up their work at once to the level of modern attainment, but produced a valuable and interesting examination of the city of Assos, and especially of its temple, which, as the excavation showed, had been but very imperfectly studied by previous explorers, and even misleadingly reported. The work was done with a thoroughness and exactness that are believed to be final.

A preliminary report of the excavations which were carried on in the seasons of 1881, 1882, 1883, published at the time, showed the thoroughness and scholarly method of the study, and added to our knowledge of the temple, which is in some ways unique. The completion of the full report has been long awaited; Mr. Clarke, who had the text in charge, being prevented from finishing his work on it; and now the Institute, rather than delay longer, has decided to publish all the illustrations in the large folio form which their scale and importance call for, with the necessary comment. This will be under the care of Mr. Bacon, whose remarkable pen-drawings are the substance of the publication, and Mr. Koldewey. It will add to the illustrations of the temple, which have already been published in part in the papers of the Institute, the yet unseen material, illustrations of the Agora, of the surrounding buildings—the stoas, Greek and Roman baths, Council Hall, Theatre, Gymnasium, an early Byzantine church—the street of tombs, and a variety of lesser material, as well as the encompassing city walls, which are one of the most interesting groups of Greek fortifications that are left to us. With the drawings will be many photographs, also the work of the explorers.

The Institute has issued a prospectus which shows invitingly on a somewhat reduced scale the character of the book and the quality of the illustrations. Among these are conspicuous the impressive plan of the streets and buildings of the city as they were uncovered, and a striking photographic picture of the old harbor with its mole as they now appear, which fills one with amazement at the statement of Texier that he could find no traces of a harbor anywhere. There will be five sections of the book, published at $5 each, and the Institute, not having funds at hand for the publication, appeals to its members and to the public to forward subscriptions, as far as possible, in advance. The undertaking is one that does honor to American scholarship and benefit to the world of students; it is to be hoped that the response will be a ready one. W. P. P. L.

Cambridge, Mass., December 27, 1900.

"FAIR PLAY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a constant reader of the *Nation* in this land of my adoption I cannot, though an American imbued with strong affection

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for my native land, in justice allow the statements made by "Equity" in your issue of November 15 to pass unchallenged.

Lord Roberts has certainly ordered that all Boer farmhouses found concealing ammunition, or used as defences from which firing is carried on against British troops, are to be burned to the ground. In these cases they are simply powder-magazines and hostile positions to be taken. All Boers have been duly warned of this proclamation, and disregard it at their own risk. It would be well for "Equity" to read the history of our own war and Sheridan's devastation of the Shenandoah Valley.

As for the women and children, they have been in all cases treated kindly, and conveyed to places of safety. It is morally impossible to fight in kid gloves with velvet cushions, and a people who deliberately declare war upon another must be prepared to take the consequences. When the refugees from Johannesburg were travelling to Cape Town in the open cattle trucks provided by the Boers, loyalist mothers trying to alight at wayside stations to find a cup of water for their parched and fevered children were turned back at the pistol's mouth by Boers only to find on their return the little ones gasping in death. The following is an extract from a letter written on the 23d of October by a private in the Seaforths to his mother:

"We got the order to go to Jagersfontein, as the Boers had risen and were doing some damage to the English there. The Boer commandant got about 500 Boers into the town into his garden in the night time. The Seaforths were lying in the town square, about ten yards from the house, and as the cooks got up in the early morning to make breakfast and were putting on their kits, the Boers opened fire on them from behind the wall, about ten yards off. In an instant all were out, but the first volley they got killed their commandant and about sixteen men. There was one of our wagon-men lying under a wagon when he saw a woman running out of a house towards him. He thought she was going to speak to him when she shot him."

These facts, sir, speak for themselves, and in the name of that justice which is the birthright of free men the world over I ask your indulgence in publishing these remarks.—Your obedient servant,

B. M. Dudgeon.

21 Woodlands Terrace, Glasgow,
December 17, 1900.

CICERO AND THE TROGLODYTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen W. F. P.'s open letter in the *Nation* of December 6, 1900, in regard to my article on the Troglodytes of Cappadocia in the September *Century*. In that article I stated that, as Proconsul, Cicero had probably seen the cone-pyramids of Cappadocia and mentioned them as "latebræ." This statement must fall to the ground, for W. F. P. points out—and I am grateful to him therefor—that the speech was written before Cicero became proconsul. But W. F. P. is mistaken when he avers that this fact invalidates my whole argument. So far as the argument is concerned, it does not matter one whit whether Cicero *saw* the cone-pyramids or spoke of them from *hearsay*. I used the passage in Cicero with diffidence. I was striving for the truth, and am still. Consequently, I make a slight alteration in my standpoint, and admit that Cicero had not *seen* the cones at the time he wrote the speech on the Manilian Law, but it still remains inherently probable that he had *heard* of them. And that *he knew of them*, whether as an eye-witness or from hearsay, is the only point that is of value for my argument.

W. F. P. upbraids me for vagueness of reference. The vagueness is there, but it is not my fault. Editors are supreme, and often use the blue pencil to the keen regret of the writer. In my paper I not only referred to Cicero de Imperio Cn. Pompeii iii, 7, but I quoted the words in question, "ita regnat, ut se non Ponti neque Cappadociæ latebris occultare velit."

To give credit where credit is due, I should state that my attention was called to this important passage by Prof. F. A. Gallup of Hamilton, N. Y.

Very respectfully yours,

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Amherst, Mass., December 26, 1900.

A PHILOLOGER'S ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the recently issued fourth part of volume eight of the Publications of the Modern Language Association, there appears a paper whose form is such as to offend any one of taste in matters of speech usage, especially those of us who feel that cultivated expression in the mother-tongue should be the aim of all modern-language men.

There are not only such provincialisms as "at time" for "at times" (p. 473), "on a whole" for "on the whole" (p. 487), but also a frequent betrayal of illiterate half-acquaintance with the form and use of words. Thus, the verb *predominate* is always used in place of the adjective *predominant*—for example, "the predominate use of the plural," etc. (pp. 445, 482, 487); and at the top of page 476 we even find *-ly* added to the verb in the effort to make an adverb of it: "The stem is used predominately in the plural." The word *usage* seems to be regarded simply as an elegant form of the ordinary word *use*, hence we read of "the usage of stems in the meaning of other stems" (p. 487).

There is an abundance of slovenly and obscure or ambiguous sentences, such as are given in elementary books on rhetoric as a warning to beginners:

"It is an interesting fact that the language . . . is very irregular . . . both in the declension as well as in gender" (p.445).

"A few stems ending in *-el* become feminine, because of the general tendency toward feminization and to [*sic*] various associations" (p. 463).

"*Bahn* MHG. *ban(e)* mf. is in *K* f, throughout Hiob 23, 11, due partly to *die strasse* and other stems denoting means of travel, but principally to discriminate from the similar stem *bann* MHG. *ban*, meaning *ban*" (p. 455).

"Either it is due directly to *die platte*, or *dic platte* influenced the stem to take on *-e* in the singular and then it falls under the influence of the numerous feminine stems ending in *tze*" (p. 456).

It is apparent that the writer has not even a clear idea of what a sentence is. At times he runs two distinct sentences together, with only a comma to mark the boundary:

"A glance at this list will show that the stems are used mostly in the singular, a striking proof for [*sic*] the important part played by the plural usage in determining the gender change, associations are present in every case which prevent the transition to the feminine gender" (p. 450).

At times even the comma is wanting:

"See *das maul* associations occur with domestic animal names" (p. 473).

On the other hand, a final clause is sometimes cut adrift from its sentence and left to shift for itself:

"Associations being again present which explain the transitions" (p. 466).

Punctuation is largely dispensed with:

"become masculine attracted by the numerous masculine stems ending in *-er*" (p. 469).

"Compare also the list of names denoting members of the body which pass from the masculine to the feminine gender due to plural usage" (p. 476).

"The feminine stems which become in N H G. neuter are with but few exceptions in *K* already neuter" (p. 481).

At times there is a helpless attempt at following some rule:

"The masculine stems have not yet taken on the *-n*, in the nominative and the *-s* in the genitive" (p. 444).

"The plural is always strong sometimes with, sometimes without *-e*" (p. 482).

The Modern Language Association of America has become a large and important organization, and its publications are constantly demanding more respect in the world of letters. This lack of vigilance will therefore be a matter of deep regret and humiliation, both to officers and to members. Believing it incumbent on one of us promptly to note and acknowledge this slip, I venture to request you to publish this communication. A Member.

Notes.

There has recently been discovered in London the British headquarters' colored manuscript map of New York and environs during the period of the Revolutionary War. It extends from below Governor's Island to above Harlem, a distance of about eighteen or nineteen miles. It shows the fortifications, defences, topography, streets, roads, etc., together with the harbor, islands, water-ways, river frontages, etc., on the Hudson and East Rivers, and the military works on Long Island, including Brooklyn; also Paulus Hook and parts of the Jersey shore. It has a copious table of references to the various works, with notes in many cases as to the time of their construction. This very elaborate drawing, ten feet by four feet, on a scale of about six and a half inches to a mile, is being handsomely reproduced, for subscribers only, by B. F. Stevens, No. 4 Trafalgar Square, London, in careful facsimile on 24 numbered sheets, which can be joined and mounted like the original as a wall map or preserved in a portfolio. The map was kept up from time to time by the successive engineers under the British commanders-in-chief, Sir William Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, and Sir Guy Carleton, down to the approximate date of the evacuation of New York under the Paris Treaty of Peace.

The scattered "Genealogical Gleanings in England" of Mr. Henry F. Waters in the New England *Historical and Genealogical Register*, including the brilliant discoveries regarding the pedigrees of John Harvard, Roger Williams, and George Washington, will, if sufficient support be extended, be published in two volumes of about 800 pages

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each, by the New England Historic-Genealogical Society. Subscriptions, at ten dollars (or $10.50 for mailing), may be addressed to Benjamin B. Torrey, Treasurer of the above society, at No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston. The work will contain an index to more than 30,000 names and about 8,000 places; and it should be added that the Southern as well as the New England immigrants are traced by wills, etc., in Mr. Waters's impartial scheme. No such body of material for establishing a family connection between the two sides of the Atlantic has ever been accumulated.

We may mention, in this connection, a very useful undertaking on the part of Mr. Charles Knowles Bolton, Librarian of the Boston Athenæum, namely, a pamphlet of 139 pages, entitled 'Marriage Notices, 1785-1794, for the Whole United States, Copied from the *Massachusetts Centinel* and the *Columbian Centinel*' (Salem, Mass.: Eben Putnam). Any one who has ever sought information of this character from the old files, not always complete, as here, will appreciate this conspectus. Mr. Knowlton classifies the parties into celebrities, well-to-do persons, printers (by courtesy of the craft), and eccentrics. In many cases, no doubt, former residence in Boston occasioned the insertion of a notice. We should hope obituary notices were taken down along with the marriages, and may yet be published in similar form—but with greater accuracy.

The Reform Club of this city has undertaken to publish a 'History of Tammany Hall,' upon which Mr. Gustavus Myers has been engaged for five years. It will appear very shortly.

The address of Mr. Choate, American Ambassador to England, on Lincoln, at Edinburgh, on November 13, will be published directly by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who have also in press 'Questions of Empire,' Lord Rosebery's Glasgow address of November 16, and 'Problems of Evolution,' by F. W. Headley.

'The Love Letters of Victor Hugo,' 1820-1822, to Mlle. Adèle Foucher, namely; 'The Love Letters of Bismarck,' to his future wife, Fräulein Puttkamer; a 'Life of the Emperor Frederick,' from the German of Margaretha von Poschinger; 'Labor,' by Émile Zola; and 'A New Way around an Old World,' by the Rev. Francis E. Clark —whose new way is the trans-Siberian railway—are among the February publications of Harper & Bros. Messrs. Harper, by the way, announce that, by special arrangement, Mark Twain will hereafter write exclusively for their periodical publications and the *North American Review*.

W. H. Lowdermilk & Co., Washington, will publish during the present month 'The Songs of Alcæus,' memoir and text, with literal and verse translations and notes by James S. Easby-Smith, M.A., of Georgetown.

The nineteenth century, in the view of the editor of the *Almanach de Gotha* (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a slovenly tenant, who leaves much clearing up to be done by his successor. The untidiest corner is decidedly China, about which all news is stale as soon as received, and none authentic. In South Africa the tenants are still disputing, and all the poor editor can do is to leave each Dutch republic the simulacrum of independence, as heretofore, and at the same time consign both to the list of England's colonies, with such grim entries as these: "Orange River Colony. Gouv. [. . .] . . . . Troupe de police: *Baden-Powell*, maj.-gen." "Vaal River Colony. Gouv. [. . .] . . . . Troupe de police: *Baden-Powell*, maj.-gen." Then there is another year added to the discrepancy between Julian and Gregorian calendars, and for 1901 the difference will be thirteen days instead of twelve; but this change could not well be noted throughout. Finally, the industry of promoting counts to princes has gone on actively during the past twelvemonth, making more trouble in the genealogical department. The preliminary population figures of our United States census are given a place at the end. The President of Brazil is one of the four personages honored with a portrait in this volume.

'Hazell's Annual' for 1901 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney), has not labored under all the embarrassments experienced at Gotha. It has found a field for active enlargement in the South African war, of which it details the engagements to date, with lists of casualties, "names of the heroes who have won the V.C.," Parliamentary proceedings, etc., etc.; and China has furnished another field of like character. Biographies of the military leaders have naturally been looked after, and all the new members of the House of Commons are similarly accounted for. There are four new maps, showing contact of "spheres of influence" from which friction may at any time arise. The brief summary of United States history for 1900 gives the issue of the Presidential election. The census figures are not comprehended. The 'Annual' continues to justify its good reputation as "a cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day."

'The *Daily Mail* Year Book' for 1901 (London: Harmsworth Brothers) opens with curt biographies of the day's celebrities, "personally revised in nearly every instance"—Aguinaldo being obviously one of the exceptions; and probably Canon Ainger did not invent the encomium of himself as "an exquisite elocutionist, and one of the finest living critics of pure literature." Peers, Baronets, and M.P.'s are next listed, and after that it is difficult to classify the miscellaneous information pitchforked together. Section 11 is geographical; section 12 is labelled "Professional and Business."

Mrs. Stowe and Miss Perot have had the clever idea of representing, in verse and by pencil, various domestic animals put in a position where they can play upon children the thoughtless tricks that children now too frequently inflict upon them ('Our Turn,' Baltimore: Washburn). It is a real pleasure to the sympathetic friend of cruelly teased domestic pets to see the tables turned; and for the child itself to see these transmutations between the teaser and the teased cannot but be most effective in the inculcating of gentleness and sympathy towards animals. The child that has once been through this book can never again torture his pets without having a vivid picture arise in his mind of how it would feel if he were himself in the animal's place. What this may mean in the way of his attitude towards the peoples who may stand for Boers and Filipinos when he has grown up, it would be difficult to estimate.

In his four stories of experiences in the civil war and in frontier fighting ('Thrilling Days in Army Life,' Harpers), Gen. George A. Forsyth records personal memories which, when skilfully and vividly presented as here, are read with lively interest even though, as in the two reminiscences of the civil war, "Sheridan's Ride" and "Last Scenes at Appomattox," they can add no new facts to history. Sheridan, in the notable achievement of turning rout into victory at Cedar Creek, appears, through our author's presentation, as a much less tumultuous and stormy commander than legend has been wont to depict him.

The importance of the subject discussed by Mr. Alfred Russell of the Detroit bar, under the title 'The Police Power of the State' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), justifies our calling attention to his work. It is more of a digest than a treatise, the number of cases cited being enormous, and hence is not adapted for continuous reading. But the arrangement is such as to make it practicable to ascertain the trend of decisions in different departments of social activity, and thus to show the extent to which our law is really "judge-made." The general result, however, is far from reassuring. The decisions, even in the same court, are so conflicting as to make it almost impossible to lay down any rule as to the limits of the police power. Mr. Russell asserts that nine-tenths of the legislation of the States during the year 1899 was in the exercise of this power—a fact sufficient in itself to establish the presumption that the power is abused. The courts exert, on the whole, a restraining influence; but it is impossible to maintain that they do so in accordance with clearly defined and generally accepted Constitutional principles.

Both Thomas Aitken's 'Roadmaking and Maintenance' (London: Charles Griffen & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott) and George W. Tillson's 'Street Pavements and Paving Materials' (John Wiley & Sons) treat of country roads as well as of city streets, but the first deals mainly with European and the second with American practice. The nineteenth century has witnessed a marvellous progress in rational and economic methods of street-construction, beginning with macadam roads and ending with brick and asphalt pavements. Road-making is now an established branch of civil engineering, with principles and practice as clearly defined as those of railroad work. Anybody may build a road or street, but it is now definitely settled that a county or city must employ a trained engineer in order to secure results which shall be the most economic—that is, which shall be of greatest value to the community at the lowest cost of construction and maintenance. Both of these volumes are valuable aids to this end.

We have been tardy in noting Salomon Reinach's paper on the 'Survivals of Totemism among the Ancient Celts,' a reprint from the *Revue Celtique*. Without attempting to exhaust the subject, for which a volume would be necessary, the author indicates, from sculptured remains, the traces of totemistic conceptions of the horse, mule, crane, bull, boar, snake, and crow. The paper begins with a discussion of a passage in Cæsar's 'Gallic War,' in which the Roman conqueror mentions the Britons as keeping the hare, cock, and goose, not for food, but *animi voluptatisque causa*. Cæsar's explanation is, of course, impossible; the Britons were not animal- or bird-fanciers. If to them certain animals were *nefas*, the custom must be a survival of totemism. Reinach touches upon the Capitoline goose legend of ancient Rome, and regards the

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goose as the totem of a Roman clan. His strictures upon the theory that the prohibition of certain animals as food—for example, the pig—could have originated as a sanitary measure, are well worth pondering. Interesting, also, is his treatment of the goddess Artio and her Bear (a sculpture discovered at Muri), in connection with the legend of the founding of Bern. Everything in the paper, however, is interesting. In thirty-eight pages the reader is led over a wide field, his eyes are opened to the profound difference between totemism proper and anthropomorphic animal-worship (theriolatry), between theriolatry and the fully developed mythology of classic literature.

Libraries as well as Oriental scholars will be interested in the second part of the 'Orientalische Bibliographie' which has just appeared in Berlin. This part completes the thirteenth volume of the series, and contains an extremely comprehensive and well-arranged list of the important works relating to the East which were issued in the second half of 1899. It is interesting to note some three hundred titles of books and articles pertaining to China and Japan alone. There are as many on India; and the other Eastern countries are represented in proportion. An excellent index of authors' names is added. The American Oriental Society, as well as the Royal Academy of Sciences of Bavaria and the German Oriental Society, contributes a share to carrying on the publication, which is ably conducted under the editorial supervision of Dr. Lucian Scherman of Munich. America is represented on the list of scholars who collaborate with him.

We have from the Boston Museum of Fine Arts specimen pages of their projected 'Catalogue of the Morse Collection of Japanese Pottery.' The work is in charge of Prof. Edward S. Morse, the gatherer and present curator of what is generally regarded as a collection of unique historical importance for the study of Oriental ceramics. The pottery is photographed in the cases as exhibited, so that over four thousand pieces are shown. This involves a great reduction of scale, but such is the clearness of the photogravures, at least of the two specimens before us, that the styles may be readily identified without the use of a glass, while outline keys marked with the Museum numbers and facing each plate facilitate the task of identification. The list evidently fulfils the strictest requirements of modern cataloguing, containing notes on the chief makes and makers, and reproductions of more than fifteen hundred potters' marks. The regular edition will form a large quarto volume of 384 pages in the best style of the Riverside Press. The Museum offers this at twenty dollars, and a limited (50) large-paper edition in two volumes at fifty. Incidentally it may be said that it would be gratifying to have from our own Metropolitan Museum catalogues of like thoroughness and importance.

In the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for December, 1900, nothing is perhaps worthy of more serious regard than Professor Hart's discussion of the financial condition of the University. The cost of maintaining the plant tends steadily to a deficit, and it is a question in what way to meet this, by economies or by extra charges. Professor Hart states very fairly the pros and cons of this question, especially as respects the raising of the tuition fee. Every new building bestowed on the University involves a fresh burden on the general fund for care and repairs, and even so curious a benefaction as the college fence now in progress adds its quota to the same burden.

Dr. A. Donaldson Smith's second expedition to Northeastern Africa, described in the *Geographical Journal* for December, puts him in the front rank of living travellers. Not only did he make a route survey of over five hundred miles of the almost unknown region between Lake Rudolf and the Nile, but he brought to the British Museum and the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia valuable collections including several hundred species of birds, mammalia, plants, reptilia, and batrachia, fishes, butterflies, etc.—a good number of them new to science. He noted a remarkable change in the fauna as soon as the basin of the Nile was entered—"a completely different set of birds," while scarcely any of the mammalia which inhabit the Galla country are to be found there. This apparently includes the elephant, a species so numerous just to the north of the lake that "their stench was most disagreeable." Among the natives of this region he found a tribe of cow worshippers who practise certain rites similar to those of the Hindoos, though they kill with much ceremony and eat their cows. Incidentally Dr. Smith commends the treatment by the Abyssinians of the natives along their southern border after they have been subdued. They give them back "a good proportion of their belongings and very nearly their original self-government, but a moderate tax being imposed." The raids, however, by which they are extending their rule towards the Nile, are terribly destructive. One rich tribe, which he visited in 1895, had been exterminated, and of others then large and flourishing there were only a few remnants.

The scientific progress of Japan is demonstrated afresh by the leading article in *Petermann's Mittheilungen*, number eleven, on the great earthquake in Northern Honshu on August 31, 1896. It is by Dr. N. Yamasaki, and contains the results of his personal examination of the four provinces affected, made immediately afterwards by order of the Government Earthquake Commission. A topographic and geological sketch is followed by numerous details as to the time, the magnetic disturbance, the frequency of the shocks and direction. The ruin, especially evident in the beautifully wooded hill country, was not complete at the time of the writer's visit, for enormous masses of rock were even then continually falling with a noise like distant thunder. Prof. E. Seler summarizes the early historical data relative to the boundary dispute between Costa Rica and Colombia. The accompanying map gives the new boundary as recently determined by arbitration, which divides the disputed territory nearly equally, following the watersheds from Pta. Mona on the east coast to Pta. Burica on the Pacific. The *Anzeiger* contains a sketch of the well-known Chinese traveller Prof. Ferdinand von Richthofen.

A strong and earnest portrait of the late Henry Villard has been included by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, in his "imperial-panel" series of photographs of celebrities. All the marks of character are present, and one misses chiefly the geniality of expression which gave its charm to the face of this much lamented philanthropist.

—The Massachusetts Historical Society has made a selection from the Jefferson papers recently given to it by Mr. T. J. Coolidge, and a notable volume is the result. However great may be the difference of opinion upon Jefferson's political system, as a writer he is never dull, and his many interests outside of politics impart to his letters much the same variety as Franklin's possessed. In this new volume of his correspondence, few of the papers were written before 1800, and little reference is made to the stormy period of Cabinet service. Jefferson could not avoid giving a note of triumph when Hamilton published his 'Observations.' Writing to John Taylor, he said: "I understand that, finding the streight between Scylla and Charybdis too narrow for his steerage, he has preferred running plump on one of them. In truth, it seems to work very hard with him; and his willingness to plead guilty as to the adultery seems rather to have strengthened than weakened the suspicions that he was, in truth, guilty of the speculations." This was hardly generous in one who is described by Taylor as "often contemplating in raptures the idea of a patriot king." Very characteristic, too, is his policy in regard to offices, expressed immediately after his accession to the Presidency: "A few removals from office will be indispensable. They will be chiefly for real malconduct, and mostly in the offices connected with the administration of justice. I shall do as little in that way as possible." In this connection should be read the letter of Martha Page (p. 120), which shows how far Jefferson would use public office to assist a friend.

—In his home relations, the correspondence shows Jefferson in a very favorable light. To the members of his family, he wrote freely and frankly, with little of the reserve and suspicion which he showed even to the men who stood close to him—like Madison and Monroe. At such times we get nearer to the real character of the man, untouched by his political dreams and aspirations. On his plantation, never (it is to be judged) in very good order, he was assiduous in experiments, careful of detail, and neglectful of general conditions. "My whole life has been past in occupations which kept me from any minute attention to them, and finds me now with only very general ideas of agriculture, without actual experience." That was his own view of his defects; but a man who would impose an embargo in the vain pursuit of a general benefit, or would undertake the cultivation of cotton in Virginia in 1818—a culture so little known in that State that seed could not be obtained anywhere in it—was certainly wanting in breadth of view. He began to manufacture nails on his farm with slave labor, and prescribes the treatment: "It would destroy their value, in my estimation, to degrade them in their own eyes by the whip. This, however, must not be resorted to but in extremities; as they will be again under my government, I would chuse they should retain the stimulus of character." There is a sarcastic touch of truth in the following sentence, written to a young correspondent: "There is something within us which makes us wish to have things conducted in our own way, and which we generally fancy to be pa-

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triotism." Jefferson's views of his contemporaries, when not too strongly colored by his partisanship, are critically keen. From the many, that on Richard Henry Lee may be quoted: "Mr. Lee was considered as an orator and eloquent, but not in that style which had much weight in such an assembly of men as that Congress was. Frothy, flimsy, verbose, with a musical voice and chaste language, he was a good pioneer; but not an efficient reasoner."

—Under the title, 'Lives of Great Italians' (London: Unwin; Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), Mr. Frank Horridge, a writer hitherto unknown to us, presents biographical sketches of Dante, Petrarch, Carmagnola, Machiavelli, Michelangelo Buonarroti, Galileo, Goldoni, Alfieri, Cavour, and Victor Emanuel. These sketches vary as much in merit as in length. That of Michelangelo, for example, covers nearly 120 pages, and gives a fairly comprehensive account of his work, while those of Cavour and Victor Emanuel are short and superficial. In general, his accounts of the older men excel those of the more recent, possibly because it is easier to get material about the former than the latter. Mr. Horridge strikes us as an amateur, who, having been interested in reading about notable personages, feels a desire to communicate his interest, rather than as a thoroughgoing historian, or as a zealot for original investigation. He is fair-minded, and although he possesses no especial distinction of style, he often writes pleasantly. Occasionally, as in his epitome of Dante's works, he puts his material compactly. Since his own opinions lean towards the commonplace, he is more satisfactory when he describes concrete events, or paraphrases Villari and Symonds, than when he generalizes. Nevertheless, he occasionally puts forth a suggestion of his own that deserves consideration, as when he lays stress on Machiavelli's tendency to form ideals. His selection of subjects shows the wide range of Italian genius, but we question whether the space assigned to Carmagnola might not better have been filled by the biography of some really typical Venetian of the first rank—Tommaso Mocenigo, let us say, or that dauntless patriot, Vettor Pisani. To many readers, who have not access through foreign languages to anything better, these biographical sketches will be welcome; it is a pity, therefore, that the proofreading is throughout bad and the spelling of proper names worse.

—A 'New Velázquez Dictionary'—that is, a thorough revision of the 'Spanish Pronouncing Dictionary' published in 1852, by the late Prof. Mariano Velázquez de la Cadena—is a welcome arrival from the Appleton press. It as yet includes only the first part, Spanish-English, the overhauling and enlargement having been intrusted to Dr. Edward Gray of Berkeley, California, assisted by Señor Juan L. Iribas. Although outnumbering the old Velázquez by only three pages, the new one boasts more than 8,000 added titles, smaller (though perfectly legible) type making greater compression possible. Excision of dead matter has gone hand in hand with the introduction of recent commercial and scientific terms, so that what we have is an effectively modernized dictionary. The rules of written accentuation adopted by the Spanish Academy in 1888 are, of course, observed; in this respect alone a revision would have been, in fact, justified. When we reckon in, besides, greater accuracy of definition and usage, with a considerable enrichment in Spanish idioms, we see how much we have to be grateful for. Take the verb *tomar*, for example. The old Velázquez explained but 23 of its idiomatic uses; the new one gives 42, though still behind the Academy's 60. In the revision we do not find *tomar tabaco*, "to take snuff"; it occurs under *tabaco*, however. This illustrates a certain perplexity of cross-reference. *Tomar las de Villadiego* appears under both key-words; why should not *tomar tabaco?* We suppose the editors would say they must draw the line somewhere. Under *tabaco*, by the way, it would have been useful to include the idiomatic *darle á uno para tabaco*, "to give one a beating." To go back to *tomar*, omission is made of the common phrase *tomar la palabra*. Again we turn to *palabra*, and find the idiom, though here wrongly defined. It does not mean "to speak first," but "to take the floor," simply *ponerse á hablar*, as the Academy defines it. But in any strictures upon *tomar*-idioms, one must always bear in mind the confession of the Academicians themselves: "Difícil sería presentar un catálogo fiel y completo de todas las acepciones del verbo *tomar*." So far as we have been able to judge by tests here and there, the revisers have done their work with sound scholarship and excellent taste. The 'New Velázquez' is happily timed for the new vogue of Spanish.

—Signora Jessie White Mario has made an excellent selection from the writings of Mazzini ('Scritti Scelti di Giuseppe Mazzini,' Florence: Sansoni) for the series of Italian classics of which Professor Carducci is the general editor. Within the compass of 400 pages she has given pieces which represent Mazzini as man of letters, as political agitator, as social philosopher, and as prophet. Here we find such important critical essays as "Byron and Goethe," "Fate as an Element in the Drama," "The Genius of Thomas Carlyle," "The Philosophy of Music," and "On a European Literature"—papers some of which were first printed in English, and all of which justify the belief that, had Mazzini devoted himself wholly to literature, he would have stood among the three or four supreme authors of the century. As it is, even his political pieces have a lasting quality. His letter to De Tocqueville and Falloux, containing his terrific invective against the French Ministry, which had abetted Louis Napoleon in his suppression of the Roman Republic in 1849, is reprinted here, and we doubt whether it can be matched for its mingling of righteous indignation, sarcasm, and scorn. Here, too, are the early letter to Charles Albert and the later one to Victor Emanuel. Besides several extracts from Mazzini's autobiography, there are papers which relate to young Italy, to the beginning of the Sicilian Revolution in 1848, to the Roman question, and to other political events in which Mazzini was involved. His ideals are set forth in the address "To the Youth of Italy," in "Resurrection," and in "Faith and the Future"; while a final series of extracts, dating from 1860 to 1869, embodies his doctrines on Socialism. Nor should we omit to mention that his memorial to Jacopo Ruffini, his martyr friend, and his very early essay on Dante's patriotism are also included in this collection. Signora Mario has provided an introduction of more than sixty pages, in which she surveys rapidly Mazzini's life down to 1847, and prints passages from letters and memoirs, some of which have not hitherto been made public. The briefer notices with which she introduces the selections are also full of important information. No other living person is so well qualified as she to do this work; for she not only knew Mazzini intimately and plotted with him, in the days of conspiracy, but she also knew thoroughly the conditions amid which he lived in England, and the acquaintances and friends with whom he passed more than half his life there. The world has still much to learn from Mazzini; we could wish that the English-speaking part of it might be led to him afresh by so admirable a volume of selections as this.

MORLEY'S OLIVER CROMWELL.

Oliver Cromwell. By the Right Hon. John Morley, M. P. The Century Co. 1900.

Mr. Morley's 'Oliver Cromwell' is not a biography, but an "appreciation," of the Protector. The book has been received with general and well-merited applause; it is the work of a writer who occupies a position which has never been filled by any man since the time of Macaulay. For Mr. Morley in this, at least, resembles the most brilliant and the most popular of English historians, that he unites the character of a man of letters who has taken to the pursuit of literature most seriously with the character of a statesman who has played a leading part in English public life. Mr. Gardiner and Mr. Firth, those "giants of research," to whom Mr. Morley pays a characteristically generous and deserved tribute, possess an intimate, we might almost say a personal, knowledge of the Puritan revolution and its leaders to which Mr. Morley lays no claim; but both of them are students, and have never mixed, except as private citizens, in matters of politics. J. R. Green and Froude equal Mr. Morley in literary talent, but the most ardent admirer cannot read their writings without perceiving that Green and Froude alike lacked the sort of balance and judgment which is gained from the practical experience of public life. Add to all this that Mr. Morley possesses and displays in every page two qualities which are difficult to define, but which, at the present day, are highly appreciated by the class that used to be called intelligent and candid readers, and are, in the current phraseology of to-day, called men of education and culture. The first of these qualities is "style." Mr. Morley, as a man of letters, is, above all things, a stylist. No one can mistake the laborious care of his writing. No one can suppose that he has ever adopted the maxim laid down by Mr. Leslie Stephen, that, "to acquire good style, you should never think of style at all." Not only must Mr. Morley himself, at any rate before he attained his present literary cunning, have thought day and night of style, but the readers of his 'Cromwell' never, we may be sure, have our author's style quite out of their minds; and we may be equally sure that, for the most part, they are filled with admiration for striking phrases which are always sententious and occasionally pregnant. The second quality is a profound belief in the "best thought," as it is called,

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of to-day. An example, which makes our meaning clearer than would any attempt at definition, is to be found in Mr. Morley's enthusiasm for the Historic Sense:

"Of the Historic Sense," he writes, "it has been truly said that its rise indicates a revolution as great as any produced by the modern discoveries of physical science. . . . By virtue of that sense, even those who have moved furthest away in belief and faith from the books and the symbols that lighted the inmost soul of Oliver, should still be able to do justice to his free and spacious genius, his high heart, his singleness of mind. . . . Yet Historic Sense forbids us to judge results by motive, or read consequences by the ideals and intentions of the actor who produced them."

In these words we have at once the manner and the thought of our author. We have also the key to Mr. Morley's impressiveness.

Though it is easy to account for and to justify the favorable and deep impression which his book has made upon the public, or rather upon the world of culture, it is a hard matter for critics who are both candid and friendly to answer the question, how far Mr. Morley's estimate of Cromwell really adds to our understanding of the Protector and his age. The true reply is that Mr. Morley, in common with all writers of weight, exhibits in a marked degree the faults which naturally accompany his special merits. No one will fairly estimate the value of our author's work who does not distinctly acknowledge his deficiencies.

Mr. Morley, in the first place, though well known by his lives of Rousseau, Diderot, Voltaire, and Cobden, has not the special gifts of a biographer: he is not a literary painter; he has never given us a portrait of any man. If any writer was ever marked by superabundant individuality, it was Voltaire; yet under Mr. Morley's hands he becomes a sort of abstraction, a representation, as it were, of Free Thought in perpetual conflict with Prejudice. For a true picture of Voltaire you must go to Mr. Parton. Our American writer had not a tithe of Mr. Morley's culture, and was as poor a thinker as Boswell, but the caprice of Nature had invested him with a touch of the Boswellian genius. Mr. Parton often misunderstood French, and certainly did not understand Latin, but he shows us Voltaire, so to speak, in the flesh. Richard Cobden, again, must have been a man of strong personality, yet in the pages of Mr. Morley he becomes the incarnation of Free Trade and of Political Economy. So, to a certain extent, it is with Mr. Morley's Cromwell. Many of his criticisms on the Puritan statesman are sagacious, they are all worth attention; but in no single page does Mr. Morley present us with anything like a picture of his hero. Oddly enough, the man of letters and man of thought is, in our author, always more prominent than the practical statesman; he leaves on one the impression that he has learned more from books than from men.

Then, again, the phrases which arrest the attention of Mr. Morley's readers have imposed a little too much upon their creator. He is apt to give us a striking dictum or quotation where we want a clear explanation.

"Historians," he writes, "may argue for ever about the legalities of what had happened, but the two great actors were under no illusions. The only question was, who should draw his sword first and get home the swiftest thrust. The game was a terrible one with fierce stakes, *My head or thy head;* and Pym and Strafford knew it."

Here we have sentences which the reader will remember, and sentences which mean something, but do not, when carefully weighed, mean very much. Take Mr. Morley's rendering of the same idea applied to the execution of Charles I.:

"The two most sensible things," he writes, "to be said about [it] . . . have often been said before. One is, that the proceeding was an act of war, and was just as defensible and just as assailable, and on the same grounds, as the war itself. The other remark, thought tolerably conclusive alike by Milton and by Voltaire, is that the regicide treated Charles precisely as Charles, if he had won the game, undoubtedly promised himself, with law or without law, that he would treat them. The author of the attempt upon the Five Members in 1642 was not entitled to plead punctilious demurrers to the revolutionary jurisdiction. From the first it had been *My head or thy head*, and Charles had lost."

Here again we have phrases that will stick in the memory, but have we anything like a real solution of a perplexed constitutional and political problem? The plea put forward really condemns the form of a trial. War is one thing, judicial condemnation is another. The attempt to blend the two takes away the justification from each. If Charles was a foe to be shot down, what are we to say of Cromwell's endeavors to come to terms with him? What, again, has become of the Historic Sense which was to forbid us to judge results by motive? From the point of view of English freedom, the execution of Charles I. stands condemned by its consequences. It excited a kind of indignation which made the permanent maintenance of the Commonwealth or the Protectorate impossible; it gave a sort of sanctity to the Stuarts. Neither the vices of Charles II. nor the narrow bigotry of his brother could completely do away with the effect produced by the so-called martyrdom of their father. The removal, moreover, of the King made a restoration possible because men might fairly hope that the return of Charles II. would not involve an attempt to take vengeance on every man involved in the rebellion. It is not often that historical comparisons are worth much, but one at least is worth making. Charles I. was remembered and venerated just because he was put to death. James II. was allowed or prompted to escape to the Continent; exile meant the loss not only of power but of prestige. It may well be doubted whether at the present day one educated Englishman in a hundred knows the date of James's death.

Mr. Morley's confidence, indeed, in the Historic Sense, though held most honestly by himself, and shared by the vast majority of his educated readers, will seem to many critics little better than a delusion, and a delusion which a good deal mars his historical work. Does, after all, this Historic Sense mean more than the combination of the two convictions, first, that research is the basis of historical knowledge, and, secondly, that, in judging the men of another age, we ought not to apply exclusively the standard of our present beliefs and sentiments? These convictions are sound, and have of recent years gained in force, but they have been entertained more or less consciously by every historian from the time of Thucydides downwards. If by Historic Sense, on the other hand, Mr. Morley means some newly acquired power of understanding the sentiments of other ages, we deny its existence. Mr. Morley himself is in intention one of the fairest of men. He tries earnestly to enter into the beliefs and feelings of the Puritans, yet at every turn we see his extreme difficulty in understanding feelings, or prejudices, not only entertained by the Puritans, but cherished, though in slightly different forms, by the Englishmen of to-day. Take, for example, his remark as to Strafford's policy in Ireland: "The English colonist and his ecclesiastical confederate and ally were the enemy, and nobody has ever seen this so effectually as Strafford saw it." Now, it is quite maintainable that, had it been possible for England and Ireland to pursue different paths, and had no Englishman ever settled in Ireland, it would have been better in the long run for both countries; but what it is not possible to maintain is, that any English Government could treat the English colonist as the enemy, and it is hardly credible that Strafford ever meant to embark on so mad a design. No doubt he did mean to govern the country autocratically, and to raise an army which might turn the scale in favor of the crown in the impending conflict between the King and the Parliament. But the conception of statesmanship based upon systematic hostility to the colonists was surely as foreign to the ideas of Strafford as to those of Cromwell.

It is worth dwelling on this point because Mr. Morley, with all his laudable endeavor to do justice to the Puritans and to Cromwell, does not emphasize the one strong point of their Irish policy. That policy ended in failure, and, we conjecture, had hardly a prospect of success, but its critics should remember that it never had a permanent and therefore fair trial. Cromwell and the Puritans generally intended that in Ireland there should be equality among Protestants; they further made Ireland part of the United Commonwealth. The men who succeeded them carried on to the best of their ability the system of penal legislation for the Roman Catholics, but did not insure the equal rights of Protestants. The legislative union had come to an end, and with it the commercial equality which at any rate secured to Ireland great material benefits. Can any one be certain that if the Protestants of Ireland, or, in other words, the English colony, had been contented, half at least of the Irish problem would not have been solved? The plain truth is that this is a point on which Mr. Morley and Mr. Morley's critics ought to speak with equal diffidence. The Historic Sense may do something for us, but it will not make it possible for any Englishman who has taken part on the one side or the other of the home-rule controversy, to treat with judicial impartiality the relations of England and Ireland in the seventeenth century.

We have dealt at some length with the defects of Mr. Morley's 'Cromwell,' just because of their close connection with indubitable merits. The book does not, indeed, explain the paradox of Puritanism, which is nothing else than the strangeness of complete success followed by absolute and in some sense final failure, but it does supply material for thought. It does not give a picture of Cromwell, but it suggests peculiarities in his character which go far to explain his failure in every attempt to construct a system which should outlast his own life. Mr. Morley, for in-

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stance, points out, what the admirers of Cromwell are loath to acknowledge, namely, his impatience, which appears oddly to contrast with his persevering tenacity in the pursuit of his main objects. Who can seriously doubt that Mr. Morley is perfectly right in intimating that the dissolution of the Long Parliament was a fatal blunder? For the Rump no one need have much sympathy. Looked at from the most favorable point of view, it was a republican oligarchy which, while professing popular principles, could not and dared not appeal to the people, but the remnant of the Long Parliament held possession of the tradition of legality. Let any one consider for a moment the immense importance of giving to the Constitution as remodelled by the Puritans something like a legal origin. Cromwell's impatience made him throw away the one chance of conciliating that vast body of Englishmen who have always prized legality as the one security either for freedom or for progress. The Rump no doubt was a most irritating body, but then statesmanship is shown by not yielding to irritation. Cromwell himself, we may well believe, hated despotism as much as was possible for a man who was all but compelled to use arbitrary power, but he neither knew how to do without or with a Parliament. "How much safer," argues Mr. Morley, commenting upon a letter of Henry Cromwell's, "to rely upon a Parliament, with all its slovenly, slow, and froward ways, than upon a close junto of military grandees with a standing army at their back. This is what the nation also thought and burned into its memory for a century to come. Here we have the master key to Cromwell's failure as a constructive statesman." And in this Mr. Morley is assuredly right.

Then, again, he recognizes, what admirers of Cromwell have failed to acknowledge, that it was by no means without reason that friends and foes alike found in the Protector a quality which admirers might call policy, but which hostile critics deemed to be cunning. On the singular letter to Hammond, Mr. Morley remarks: "From the point of a modern's carnal reasoning, all this has a thoroughly sophistic flavor," and Mr. Morley, we infer, thinks that, in the seventeenth as in the nineteenth century, sophistic reasonings in which religious sentiment blends with worldly expediency must excite distrust towards the statesman who uses them. One, indeed, of Mr. Morley's strongest points is that, without falling back on the old theory of Cromwell's hypocrisy and craftiness, he obviously allows a good deal more for design and policy than is consistent with the hero-worship of Carlyle, or even with the too extensive and undiscriminating charity of Gardiner. In reference to the self-denying ordinance, he points out, with admirable good sense, the impossibility of believing that the post of lieutenant-general should have been left vacant otherwise than by design, and that every one must have foreseen, and that Cromwell certainly did foresee, that if the war continued he would assuredly fill the vacant place. We should like much to know whether Mr. Morley does not hold, as some of his expressions lead us to infer, that what was true of the post of lieutenant-general was at a later date true of the kingship. Surely Cromwell expected (and no one need blame him, either as a Puritan or as a patriot, for the expectation) that, within a few years, Providence would place the crown upon his head. This expectation sufficiently explains his position at the time of his death. But on this matter, though we think Mr. Morley shares our view, he gives no very distinct utterance. In a passage, however, which furnishes an admirable specimen of his analysis of character, he shows his keen appreciation of the sort of revolutionist who often renders prudent statesmanship almost an impossibility:

"The cry of the political leveller was led by Lilborne, one of the men whom all revolutions are apt to engender—intractable, narrow, dogmatic, pragmatic; clever hands at syllogism, liberal in uncharitable imputation and malicious construction, honest in their rather questionable way, animated by a pharisaic live of self-applause, which is in truth not any more meritorious nor any less unsafe than vain love of the world's applause; in a word, not without sharp insight into theoretic principle, and thinking quite as little of their own ease as of the ease of others, but without a trace of the instinct for government or a grain of practical common sense."

GIBB'S OTTOMAN POETRY.

A History of Ottoman Poetry. By E. J. W. Gibb. Vol. I. London: Luzac & Co. 1900. Pp. xxii, 454.

It is only once in a decade, if even then, that a book of permanent importance on an Oriental subject comes from the pen of an English scholar. The Vallombrosan leaves of the crank, the sciolist, and the apprentice in literature flutter down more thickly from English trees than from any others; it would seem mostly as though the traditions of a great past were forgotten, and the insular fellowship of Foster of the Sinai inscriptions and Jonathan Scott of the 'Arabian Nights' had triumphed over the memories of Pocock and Hyde and Lane. In few other countries has the general level of scholarship been so low, and the superficial dilletante so uplifted his horn against the painful and honest toiler. No one, for example, would ever dream of comparing the average articles in the *Journal* of the Royal Asiatic Society with those in the *Zeitschrift* of the German Oriental Society or in the *Journal Asiatique*. And yet, behind all this, the lettered life flows tranquilly on. In quiet country parsonages or city chambers men spend their ten or twenty years of work on a book, thinking of nothing but how to make their child, often their one child, as beautiful and perfect as may be, and leaving, in the meantime, the stage to whoever may choose to occupy it. The German scholar, on the other hand, passes a public and pugnacious existence in *Zeitschriften* and *Abhandlungen*. His labor and his loss are truly great, but so, too, is his reward; for the ignorant and half-ignorant vanish before him. Lane, during years of toil at his dictionary, wrote only two magazine articles; Fleischer, after his *Baydāwī*, gave his life to ruling, as a kindly Aristarchus, the Arabic studies of all the West.

The book before us is the product of such long and patient toil. Since the death of Sir James Redhouse, Mr. Gibb has represented Turkish studies in England; and, even in Germany, although he has not gone out into the wilderness of the *Zeitschriften*, he is honored as the author of the sketch of Turkish literature in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' the only one that yet exists. It is long, too, since he began to publish translations from the Turkish. His 'Ottoman Poems' appeared in 1882, his 'Story of Jewad' in 1864, and his 'Forty Vezirs' in 1886. And all the time he was collecting materials for his great work. The task before him was no light one, and the approach to it had been little smoothed by the preliminary labors of predecessors. He had practically to cover the whole ground himself, and to learn everything at first hand from the Turkish sources. These still remain in great part in manuscript, and, even with the treasures of the British Museum at his service, Mr. Gibb had to rely largely on his own slowly gathered library. To be added to all this is the length of the way over which the historian of Ottoman literature must travel. If its beginning can be dated only with the fall of the Seljuqs in 1300, the end is by no means yet, and only one period and 150 years have been compressed into the present volume. But the very fact that the story is so long and is still going on is what will make, for most, the interest of this literature. The strange fact is, that Turkish, alone among all the Muslim languages, is producing, and evidently will produce, in increasing richness, a poetry that bears the stamp of modernity, even to a tendency towards decadency in our sense.

How striking a phenomenon this is, need hardly be remarked. Persian is still treading in the old paths. Its poets grind the same well-worn ideas, and strive only to prank them out with more and more novel flowers of rhetorical expression, and greater and greater smoothness of melody. Arabic is enjoying a renaissance of a kind, but one more political and educational than literary. The Pan-Islamic movement has seized upon it as a means of union, and seeks in the classic tongue of the people of Muhammad a bond to draw more closely together the multifarious Muslim nations. The study of that language (called fondly "*the* language") by the masses of the people, the printing of books and, above all, of newspapers in it, have made a progress within the last ten years that has struck non-Muslim observers with something akin to consternation. Undoubtedly we can trace here, in part, the fruits of the patient labors of the mission schools in Syria and Egypt. But, equally undoubtedly, the immediate cause of this sudden awakening and curiosity is political. And it, too, has produced little vitally new literature. The grasp of the dead hand of classical form is still stiff, and the translations and adaptations from Molière and La Fontaine by Muhammad Gelāl 'Uthmān have met little response and less imitation among his countrymen in Egypt. Very different is the case in Turkish. In spite of official disapproval, the Sufi and Persianistic manacles of the past have been struck off, and the second (and the truest) great *Blüthe-Zeit* of Turkish literature has begun. European, especially French, influence has carried all before it, and has pointed the way to simplicity and nature. The old metaphysicalities, verbal artificialities, unrealities, have vanished before the laughter of the Parisian stage. Plays, novels, and poems have all, now, the stamp of the West; and if the new development stops at this point, there is danger that it may become as unreal for the great mass of the Turkish people as were the Persianisms of the old régime. But that is probably only the first scum. If the young Turkish writers do not believe in anything, not even in themselves, the mass of the people

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still hold by the popular faith; and if their fashion is borrowed from Paris, they have learned through it at least to look upon Nature directly, and to interpret her simply. The perfectness with which they have learned their lesson, and the docility with which they follow their guide, can be paralleled only by the letter-perfectness and docility of their ancestors six hundred years ago. Mr. Gibb has certainly much on his side when he maintains that whole-hearted acceptance of a system, and unswerving loyalty to it when accepted, are the prime characteristics of the Turkish mind.

When the little Tartar clan, headed by Osman and thereafter to bear his name as Ottomans, swooped down upon Anatolia and the slowly dying realm of the West Seljuqs, they brought with them nothing but their own rude ballads and popular songs. What these were we may perhaps form some idea from the ballads of Kurraglu, translated by Chodzko. But the dominant literary influence of the time and the place was Persian, and so, just as those Tartar nomads became Muslims in theology, they also became Persians in literary faith and practice. When, therefore, they set themselves to develop from their chaos of dialects a literary language, Persian was their guide and rule. Persian metres and verse-forms, Persian ideas—and some very bizarre ones—in science, philosophy, and theology, Persian sensations and impressions, even the Persian vocabulary, they took over *en bloc*. During the whole period of the Old School, every Persian word, as Mr. Gibb well puts it, was a possible Turkish word. A more absolute submission, in idea and expression, of one language to another is hardly conceivable. The ideas, too, thus taken over were such as to make this submission still more startling. If we in the West have any thoughts at all about the Turk, we probably regard him as either a ferocious sensualist or a religious soldier of the Cromwellian type. But the literature which he took over from Persia was one long chant of the mystical yearning of the soul for communion with and absorption in God. In its expression it was symbolic and metaphysical to a degree, and is best paralleled by the songs of the Troubadours of Provence and the Cavalier lyrists of the English seventeenth century. In its spirit it was an inextricable and, for us, scarcely intelligible blending of the personalities of the two Rossettis—Dante Gabriel and Christina.

It is the story, then, of this literature which Mr. Gibb has begun to tell, and the present volume shows already and amply the grasp of a master. Of course, there are omissions which we may regret and opinions with which we may disagree. But there can be no question that here is a great book, largely conceived, broadly prepared for, and keenly and appreciatively thought out. The translations, in their quaintness and "preciousness" of phrasing, render the originals with singular felicity. The preliminary exposition of the origin, character, and scope of Ottoman poetry, of the religious tradition and mythology (in a sense) on which it is based, and the philosophy of which it essentially consists, of its forms, prosody, rhetoric, etc., is admirable in every detail. Our only serious quarrel with Mr. Gibb is that he has not done what he did not propose to do—given a ponderous treatise with learned footnotes and long lists of authorities. His book is written, in the first instance, for the scholarly public, not for the inner circle of Orientalists; but there is not an Orientalist alive who could read it through without profit. Still, for us who study the East—and we would entreat Mr. Gibb to listen to this prayer which we address as disciples to a master—there would be much advantage in a full *bibliographie raisonnée* of authorities, both Oriental and foreign. Fuller references in the footnotes would also be of help to the student. As to details: p. 39, note, the Arabic lexicographers (Lane, *Lexicon*, p. 2980 C.) regard *yahmūt* as the more approved form; p. 293, "Night of Power" might be better "Night of Decree"; p. 337, note 3, *istawà* is more exactly "settled Himself"; p. 347, on the fate of Nesímí it may be said that even orthodox Islam has pardoned strangely pantheistic phrases. Thus, al-Ghazzālī, and, still more, al-Qushayrī and ash-Sha'rānī, defended the memory of al-Hallāj and explained away his famous "I am the Truth!" Of much importance and significance for the understanding of Muslim mysticism, and especially of the Hurúffís, is the life of Ibn al-'Arabī, who was a curious combination of Zāhirī in law and pantheistic Sufi in theology. On p. 445 Merx's 'Idee und Grundlinien einer allgemeinen Geschichte der Mystik' might be used with advantage. Merx finds the point of departure for both Muslim and Christian mysticism in the 'Book of Hierotheus,' by Stephen bar Sudaili. This supports Mr. Gibb's contention for the non-Indian origin of Sufiism.

We close with the hope that this work, so excellently begun, may not linger by the way, but may soon reach, in Turkish phrase, the haven of completion.

The Papacy in the Nineteenth Century. By Friedrich Nippold. Translated by Laurence Henry Schwab, Rector of the Church of the Intercession. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

It is possible, if not probable, that the Episcopal clergyman who has made this laborious translation has endeavored in this way to discharge a debt of gratitude to Professor Nippold for his handsome treatment of the Episcopal Church in America. But the book deserved translation upon other grounds. It is ably and carefully written, but disfigured by a too splenetic manner in some parts, whereby it loses the character of a dispassionate history, and takes on that of an ecclesiastical pamphlet. The general outlines are firmly drawn, and represent the Roman Church, and more especially the Papacy, as profiting by every revolution of the century, but indirectly, by availing itself of the several reactions that have succeeded the several revolutions. This was the method of Pius VII. after the Restoration of 1814, of Gregory XVI. after the Revolution of 1830, of Pius IX. after the Revolution of 1848, and of Pius and Leo XIII. after the downfall of 1870. The criticism is a sharp and generally an effective one on the popes, the Roman Curia, and the Jesuit order. It can hardly be objected to as religiously partisan, for it is almost entirely political. Whatever of infallible direction went along with these adroit manœuvres, they present themselves to the historian as a concatenation of purely political events, differing from others only as involving methods more crafty and unscrupulous than those of governments not pretending to the special guidance of the Holy Spirit. It is as if the wisdom of Machiavelli had been conserved in his own country as nowhere else, and in the papal court with preëminent appreciation. The annals of diplomacy do not present a series of more doubtful practices than those whereby the Roman court has rallied its traditional strength and gone on from victory to victory.

The course of events from the first to the third French Revolution is depicted with clear understanding of its leading traits. Chief among these was the restoration of the Jesuits by Pius VII. Another was the contribution of the Protestant Powers to the welfare of the Papacy. The armies of these Powers made possible the Roman restoration. The tendency of the Papacy to reabsorb those elements which threaten to disengage themselves from it, had never a better illustration that when Leo XII. succeeded Pius VII. in 1823. As Cardinal Annibale, Leo had been inimical to Consalvi, whose influence dominated three successive popes as distinctly as that of Jefferson his own administration and those of Madison and Monroe. There were no flies so circumspect that this diplomatic spider could not involve them in his net. Niebuhr and Bunsen were both victimized by him. Leo XII. became his willing or unwilling servant almost immediately on his accession. If unwillingly, he was the more obsequious. Gregory XVI. bettered the instructions of this astute adviser, whose genius was prophetic of the contemporary boss. Renan's opinion that there have never been worse temporal rulers than the popes received abundant special illustration from the reign of Gregory. He succeeded in making himself well hated by the Roman population, but assembled thirty-one archbishops, bishops, and patriarchs to the baptism of his barber's son, having adopted the father as a favorite, and advanced him to the proudest heights.

Professor Nippold's judgment that the reign of Pius IX. was the most eventful in the whole course of Papal history will hardly be gainsaid. Dogma *quia impossibile* reached its acme in his darling projects of 1854 and 1870, the declarations of the Virgin's immaculate conception and the Pope's infallibility. Beginning as a reform pope, he soon tired of that rôle and placed himself at the head of the European reaction. It is an interesting paradox that this most ignorant of popes was the first to be infallible, but then it must be remembered that his infallibility was not personal but *ex cathedrâ*. The manipulation of the bishops and others who voted the new dogma is convincing that the children of darkness are not always wiser in their generation than the children of light. So, too, is the haste with which the recalcitrants fell into line, like so many opponents of "a nomination not fit to be made" in a political convention. The Council which decreed Infallibility is not reverently handled by Nippold. It was an interesting coincidence that a terrific storm shook the dome of St. Peter's while the Pope was promulgating his *Pastor æternus*, but a much more important one that the next day France declared war on Germany, and consequently soon found her Roman occupation gone. With that went the temporal sovereignty of the Pope, and Rome became the capital of Italy.

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But those who expected the political influence of the Pope to perish with his temporal sovereignty were much disappointed. Never was his influence more active or effective than during the decade following Sedan. It was the decade of the "Kulturkampf," a German conflict in name only. Everywhere throughout Europe the Jesuitized papacy was busy making trouble for its enemies and making things pleasant for its friends. Pius was fond of comparing himself with the great Head of the Church, and quoting, "Which of you convinceth me of sin?" as pertinent to his own condition. More apt would have been, "I am not come to bring peace, but a sword." When the Empress Eugénie called the Franco-Prussian "her little war," she did not give her Jesuit advisers the credit they deserved. In the "Kulturkampf," which ended so auspiciously for Leo XIII., Professor Nippold's judgment is "that the German statesman who of all possessed the greatest mind, failed in almost every instance in which he dealt with ecclesiastical questions." "The very qualities which make the statesman who deals with material forces powerful, render him less fit for a correct judgment of things which are not of this world." The context does not suggest that the politico-ecclesiastical failures of Bismarck were less of this world than his politico-military successes. A chapter on "The Peace-Pope, Leo XIII.," is destructive of the myth embodied in that descriptive epithet. He has yielded nothing in secondary matters which did not promise gain in those of more importance. He has never hesitated to stir up international or intestine strife when he might hope to reap a personal advantage.

There are chapters on the working of the infallible papacy, the Oxford Movement, the new papal hierarchy in England, Romanism in America and in the American Latin States. From those on England and America we get an impression of scantier information than was elsewhere at command, and a less vigorous grasp on the material. An American account of the Oxford Movement seems to have been Nippold's principal authority. He exaggerates the part played by Pusey in the earlier stages of the Movement, and relates Manning to it in an unwarranted manner. Moreover, the closing chapters suffer from the fact that they were written some ten years ago.

The Annals of Mont Blanc: A Monograph. By Charles Edward Mathews. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1900.

This work was published by Unwin in December, 1898; it comes to us now with the name of a Boston firm on the title-page. Under such circumstances it may seem strange that we should do more than notice its republication in the United States. However, there is some excuse for taking it up in a separate article. We failed to review it on its first appearance, it is an important addition to Alpine literature, and Mr. Whymper's "Lowell Lectures" have, presumably, aroused some interest among Americans in the noble sport of mountaineering. (We may remark, in parenthesis, that the most assiduous Alpinist living is an American by birth, the Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge.)

Mr. Mathews ranks with the early and the eminent climbers. Those who are familiar with the conquest of the Alps in the second half of the last century (that is, from the ascent of the Wetterhorn by Sir Alfred Willis to Sir H. S. King's ascent of the Brenva Péteret) will have met with his name at every stage. In 'Peaks, Passes, and Glaciers,' in the *Alpine Journal*, and in the Badminton volume on 'Mountaineering,' he figures constantly. He was among the founders of the Alpine Club, he has been its President, and, what to many might seem a still greater distinction, he has for thirty-five years had Melchior Anderegg for his guide. Mr. Mathews has not been to the Caucasus, the Himalayas, the Andes, the Selkirks, or the southern island of New Zealand, but he knows many parts of the Alps thoroughly, and, as the historian of Mont Blanc, he can claim the preliminary qualification of having climbed that mountain twelve times, by all the main routes. The photogravure plates for his book have been supplied by Signor Vittorio Sella, who is probably the best of mountain photographers.

Mont Blanc, as a French range and summit, has attracted the attention of M. Charles Durier, the President of the French Alpine Club. His sketch of its history was the first in the field, but Mr. Mathews's 'Annals' is the definitive account for English readers. From the days when Windham and Pococke "discovered" the Chamonix valley and quickened popular interest in it (1741), Englishmen have been foremost in exploring the great chain. Two Englishmen opened the tourist era, Adams Reilly made the first good map of the mountain, Coleridge and Shelley both wrote poems about it, Albert Smith made £30,000 by lecturing about it, and the worst fatality which has occurred on it embraced three Englishmen with their eight guides. Thus Mr. Mathews, like M. Durier, has a national interest in his subject.

The history of Mont Blanc is simply the record of its exploration. Considering that it was called Mont Maudit till about 1750, we need not waste much conjecture upon those who admired it from a distance without taking the trouble to get nearer. Mr. Mathews does not give any space to the annals of Chamonix. The history of that village was written seventy years ago by another Englishman, Mr. Markham Sherwill. Mr. Mathews, after a brief reference to old friends like Gesner, Simler, and Scheuchzer, starts in with Saussure. He examines the early and unsuccessful attempts to reach the summit; then, beginning with the triumph of Balmat and Paccard, he comes down to 1851, telling the story of every authenticated ascent before Albert Smith. His other most important chapters have to do with new routes, fatalities, and those ridiculous persons, the Chamonix guides.

Besides praising Mr. Mathews's careful research and attractive narrative, we can mention only one matter which is here debated at length, and with an exhaustive criticism of the evidence. We refer to the first ascent, and to the case of Paccard versus Balmat, which was rendered famous by Alexandre Dumas. The story told by Balmat to Dumas was that he asked Paccard, a Chamonix doctor, to go with him as a witness. The plan was Balmat's, and his, too, the success; for Paccard, having been left "half-frozen and helpless at the foot of the Calotte," was only dragged by force to the summit after Balmat had first been there. The above story Mr. Mathews dismisses as a piece of Chamonix *blague*, on the authority chiefly of Michel Carrier. His conclusion is that while Balmat discovered the true route, and was the stronger climber, Paccard was a companion and not a dead weight. It follows that he deserves a memorial at Chamonix similar to the medallion which commemorates the exploit of Balmat.

This admirable volume contains a bibliography and a geological chapter by Professor Bonney.

The Women of the Renaissance: A Study of Feminism. By R. de Maulde la Clavière. Translated by G. H. Ely. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It has been said of the Renaissance that it was great rather by what it aspired to than by what it achieved. It was indeed a time when intellectual curiosity, newly stirred, undauntedly envisaged insoluble problems, and planned impossible reconciliations of gods and men and creeds. It was, above all, the psychological moment for the intellectual and social crank. There is probably no period in the history of human failure in which men and women have struggled more feverishly to impose a lofty meaning on earthly things, to recognize that their souls burned with a sacred flame that must be fed with the best that life could furnish. No wonder that the leaders of the great reaction against materialism who ventured to soar to such heights, usually ended by adding a fresh illustration to the legend of Icarus.

A typical attempt and failure was the feminist movement in France and Italy in the sixteenth century. At this period the influence of women was almost unlimited. There was no discussion of women's rights—they might well be satisfied with their rôle of apostles and leaders in the spheres of art and literature; but they probably derived the keenest enjoyment and sense of power from their peculiar mission to humanize men and cultivate their sensibility. They were learned, in the style of Lady Jane Grey; well read in the Latin classics in their early teens; some even claimed an intimate acquaintance with Plato, and, at any rate, whether they read him or not, it was from Plato that they derived that religion of love and beauty with which they tried to transform and idealize the world. Italy, and especially Florence, furnished the most favorable atmosphere for such a gospel; but even such women as Vittoria Colonna or Tullia d'Aragona, "sweet Italian women, . . . all compact of poetry, archæology, rhetoric, and philosophy — Attic through and through at thirteen years," as M. de Maulde tells us—even such paragons as these are cast into the shade by Margaret of France, commonly called Margaret of Navarre.

The most interesting pages of M. de Maulde's voluminous treatise are devoted to this astonishing woman. For thirty years she presided over the intellectual life of France. "The whole thinking soul of France hung upon her smile; she was the incarnation of Platonism" (p. 170). Plato was her Bible, and she was convinced that of the two loves whose existence she derived from Plato, women alone have the secret of the celestial type. It was from women, therefore, that the gospel of Platonism, the religion of love and beauty,

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must proceed. The words in which she expresses her views are an echo of the 'Symposium,' in which a woman figures as a teacher with more than human authority. It is not to be supposed that, in their ardor for winning men's hearts to a love of the Beautiful, such women as Margaret of Navarre were working for their personal happiness. Platonism to them was a means of giving their souls to mankind; Margaret was the pilot of men's souls to the idea of the Beautiful; and in this rather hazardous profession she piloted so well that, as she tells us, "the most daring were reduced to despair, and the most downhearted saw a ray of hope." Platonic love for these ladies "consists precisely in loving up to the very verge of the forbidden." Naturally this led to some inconsistencies of conduct which were easily misunderstood. But, on the whole, the effect of this mission of beauty on the part of women was a wonderful increase in the lightness and gayety of life, and a certain Platonic sentiment of the brotherhood of man.

M. de Maulde's chapter on the "Science of Platonism," as Margaret and other distinguished women conceived it, is the most readable in the book. The author's style does not lend itself to translation. It is lively enough, but too florid for lucidity. "Then Terror spread her vampire wings, and the silent prisons swam with holocausts of blood" (p. 321)—if M. de Maulde had spared us that sort of thing, and had resisted the impulse to moralize on the degeneracies of the present day, his volume might have been reduced by some hundred pages. As a picture of the influence of women on society, the book is decidedly pessimistic. Women, we are told (p. 410), ought not "to do violence to their thought by printing it," and, again (p. 502):

"Let them renounce public life! But let them take complete possession of the home life. Let mannish women, if they must, turn doctors, and womanish women turn priests! Let all be philosophers, comforters, ministers of love, human and divine; let them work through love, and love through love! Let them have what we lack; let them excel us, enlighten us, encourage us! And in our hearts we Latins shall bless them as we bless the sun. Passion is a royal-warrant of life. The moral of our book is that good women should love the beautiful. . . . There is no need to be always a maiden of twelve."

With this lucid and inspiring appeal to the new woman, as envisaged by a Frenchman, ends this clumsy and irritating, though not unreadable, work. To the Anglo-Saxon reader it supplies, too often, an amusing commentary on Mr. Leonard Courtney's recent reference to the "voluble indignation of the baffled male," confronted, in France, with the economic emancipation of woman.

In spite of the total lack of sequence, one can disentangle a few leading ideas from the general chaos. M. de Maulde's work can be recommended to the ordinary reader who knows how to skip. For the student it has little value in its present form, because the bibliography, which is indispensable, and the voluminous foot-notes of the original are, in deference to the French publishers, omitted from the translation. Doubtless, in the French edition both the style and the handling produce a very different effect.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, A. V. G. Life and Letters of Phillips Brooks. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. $7.50.
Almanach de Gotha. Gotha: J. Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Andrews, Jane. The Stories of My Four Friends. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bittinger, Lucy F. The Germans in Colonial Times. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Burling, C. O. City Boys in the Country. The Abbey Press.
College Entrance Requirements in English. American Book Co. $1.
Curtis, H. J. Essentials of Practical Bacteriology. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Field, Eugene. The Tribune Primer. Boston: H. A. Dickerman & Son. 50 cents.
Gavit, Helen E. The Etiquette of Correspondence. A. Wessels Co. $1.25.
Hazell's Annual for 1901. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.
Hyde, W. D. The School Speaker and Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Ingram, T. D. A Critical Examination of Irish History. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Jackson, B. D. A Glossary of Botanic Terms. London: Duckworth & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Kastner, L. E., and Atkins, H. G. A Short History of French Literature. H. Holt & Co. $1.25.
Lampton, W. J. Yawps and Other Things. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co.
Layriz, Otfried. Mechanical Traction in War. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Lommel, Eugene. Experimental Physics. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Miller, F. J. Ovid: Selected Works. American Book Co. $1.40.
Patterson, John. The Cyclops of Euripides. London: Alexander Gardner; New York: Macmillan.
Paul's Letters to the Churches: Part II. of The Twentieth Century New Testament. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50c.
Peacock, Virginia Tatnall. Famous American Belles of the Nineteenth Century. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Report of the Ecumenical Missionary Conference. New York, 1900. 2 vols. American Tract Society. $1.50.
Singleton, Esther, and Sturgis, Russell. The Furniture of Our Forefathers. Part I. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Skinner, C. R. Manual of Patriotism, for Use in the Public Schools of the State of New York. Albany.
Stephen, Leslie. The English Utilitarians. 3 vols. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Stevenson, W. Y. The Joys of Sport. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.
Storrs, R. S. Memorial Address: Edwards Amasa Park. Boston: Samuel Usher.
Temple Primers: (1) Hommel, Fritz, The Civilization of the East; (2) Dennert, E. Plant Life and Structure. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents each.
Trübner, K. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt, 1900-1901. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Velázquez, Mariano, de la Cadena. Pronouncing Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages, First Part: Spanish-English. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Zoethout, W. D. Outlines of Human Physiology. H. Holt & Co.

Henry Holt & Co., 29 W. 23d St., New York. 378 Wabash Av., Chicago.

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